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HANDBOOK ON WOMEN WORKERS, 1965.
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FACTUAL INFORMATION COVERS THE PARTICIPATION AND CHARACTERISTICS OF WOMEN IN THE LABOR FORCE, THE PATTERNS OF THEIR EMPLOYMENT, THEIR OCCUPATIONS, THEIR INCOME AND EARNINGS, THEIR EDUCATION AND TRAINING, AND THE FEDERAL AND STATE LAWS AFFECTING THE EMPLOYMENT AND THE CIVIL AND POLITICAL STATUS OF WOMEN. IN 1965, ABOUT 26 MILLION WOMEN, 37 PERCENT OF ALL WOMEN OF WORKING AGE, COMPRISED 35 PERCENT OF THE LABOR FORCE. ABOUT 32 PERCENT OF ALL EMPLOYED WOMEN WERE CLERICAL WORKERS, 16 PERCENT WERE SERVICE WORKERS, 15 PERCENT WERE OPERATIVES, AND ALMOST 14 PERCENT WERE PROFESSIONAL AND TECHNICAL WORKERS. A MEDIAN INCOME OF $3,710 WAS RECEIVED BY YEAR-ROUND FULL-TIME WOMEN WORKERS IN 1964. ALMOST 15 MILLION WOMEN WORKERS WERE AT LEAST HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES, AND 4.9 MILLION OF THESE HAD SOME COLLEGE EDUCATION. ALMOST THREE-FIFTHS OF COLLEGE GRADUATES, BUT LESS THAN ONE-THIRD OF WOMEN WHO HAVE COMPLETED GRADE SCHOOL ONLY, WERE IN THE LABOR FORCE. THIRTY-FOUR STATES, THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA, AND PUERTO RICO HAD MINIMUM WAGE LAWS THAT APPLIED TO WOMEN. A SECTION OF THE REPORT DEALS WITH THE INTERDEPARTMENTAL COMMITTEE, THE CITIZEN'S ADVISORY COUNCIL, AND THE STATE COMMISSIONS ON THE STATUS OF WOMEN. ORGANIZATIONS OF INTEREST TO WOMEN ARE LISTED, AND A SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY IS INCLUDED. THIS DOCUMENT IS ALSO AVAILABLE AS GPO L13.3--290 FOR $1.00 FROM SUPERINTENDENT OF DOCUMENTS, U.S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE, WASHINGTON, D.C. 20402. (FS)

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Bulletin 290

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
W. Willard Wirtz, Secretary

MANPOWER ADMINISTRATION
Stanley H. Ruttenberg, Manpower Administrator

Women's Bureau
Mary Dublin Keyserling, Director

AN ACT TO ESTABLISH IN THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR A BUREAU TO BE KNOWN AS

THE WOMEN'S BUREAU

1965 HANDBOOK on WOMEN WORKERS

Women's Bureau
Bulletin No. 290

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

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UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
W. Willard Wirtz, *Secretary*

WOMEN'S BUREAU
Mary Dublin Keyserling, *Director*

Washington : 1965

PREFACE

Illumined by values transmitted through home and school and church, society and heritage, and informed by present and past experience, each woman must arrive at her contemporary expression of purpose, whether as a center of home and family, a participant in the community, a contributor to the economy, a creative artist or thinker or scientist, a citizen engaged in politics and public service.

American Women
Report of the President's Commission
on the Status of Women, 1963

FOREWORD

This handbook on American women workers is published periodically by the Women's Bureau of the U.S. Department of Labor. The handbook assembles factual information covering the participation and characteristics of women in the labor force, the patterns of their employment, their occupations, their income and earnings, their education and training, and the Federal and State laws affecting the employment and the civil and political status of women.

The handbook is designed as a ready source of reference. Part I deals with women in the labor force; Part II is concerned with the laws governing women's employment and status; Part III tells about the Interdepartmental Committee, the Citizens' Advisory Council, and the State Commissions on the Status of Women; Part IV lists organizations of interest to women; and Part V consists of a selected bibliography on American women workers.

This 1965 edition includes information that has become available since 1962 and is more comprehensive than earlier editions. Social and economic developments in recent years have had far-reaching effects on the place of women in the economy. For this reason, knowledge about the work women do, the circumstances of their working, and the direction of changes in their work is essential for an understanding of American society today.

MARY DUBLIN KEYSERLING
Director, Women's Bureau

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The Women's Bureau also wishes to thank the many private organizations and individuals without whose cooperation the information given in the handbook would be less complete.

The handbook was prepared under the general direction of Mary N. Hilton, Deputy Director of the Women's Bureau.

Part I, Women in the Labor Force, was prepared by Helen O. Nicol, Chief of the Branch of Labor Force Research, and Isabelle S. Streidl. Members of the Women's Bureau staff who contributed to this part were Catherine S. East, Janice N. Hedges, Beatrice Rosenberg, Pearl G. Spindler, Rose R. Terlin, and Muriel B. Wool, who also prepared the bibliography (Part V). Statistical assistance was provided by Thelma H. Brown, Grace R. Hipp, and Harriet G. Magruder.

Part II, Laws Governing Women's Employment and Status, was prepared by Mary C. Manning, Regina M. Neitzey, and Laura Lee Spencer, under the supervision of Alice A. Morrison, Chief of the Division of Legislation and Standards.

Part III, Commissions on the Status of Women, was prepared by Catherine S. East, Executive Secretary, Interdepartmental Committee on the Status of Women, and Marguerite I. Gilmore, Chief of the Field Division.

Other assistance, including preparation of the list of organizations of interest to women, was provided by Lillian Barsky of the Division of Information and Publications, Eleanor M. Coakley, Chief, and Laura T. Danley, Ruth Erskine, and Jane M. Newman.

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NOTE

Because of rounding, percentages in the statistical tables do not necessarily add to 100.

779-555 O—66——2

Part I

Women in the Labor Force

HIGHLIGHTS

EMPLOYMENT IN 1965

Number—About 26 million women are in the labor force.
This is 37 percent of all women of working age.
Women are 35 percent of the labor force.

Age—Half of the women workers are over 40 years of age.
Almost two-fifths are 45 years or older.
One-half of all women 45 to 54 years old are in the labor force.

Marital Status—Almost 3 out of 5 women workers are married (husband present).
Of all married women (husband present) in the population, 34 percent are working.

Family Status—About 9.5 million mothers with children under 18 years of age are working—3.6 million mothers with children under 6.
Working mothers are 38 percent of all women in the labor force.

Employment Patterns—About 37 percent of all women workers work full time the year round.
About 32 percent work part time the year round or part of the year.

Occupations—About 32 percent of all employed women are clerical workers. They include 2.7 million stenographers, typists, and secretaries.
Sixteen percent are service workers (except private-household).
Fifteen percent are operatives, chiefly in factories.
Almost 14 percent are professional and technical workers. They include 1.4 million teachers.

INCOME IN 1964

Median Income in 1964—$3,710 was received by year-round full-time women workers; $1,449, by all women with income.

EDUCATION IN 1964–65

School and College Enrollment—There were almost 25 million girls and women between 5 and 34 years of age enrolled in school in the fall of 1964.

Education Completed—Almost 15 million women workers are at least high school graduates, and 4.9 million of these have some college education.
Almost three-fifths of college graduates, but less than one-third of women who have completed grade school only, are in the labor force.

1

WOMEN AS WORKERS

Toward Economic Equality and Opportunity

Womanpower is one of our country's greatest resources. Women's skills and abilities are being used more fully and more creatively than ever before—in the home, in the community, and on the job.

Since 1940 American women have been responsible for the major share in the growth of the labor force. They accounted for more than 60 percent of the total increase from 1940 to 1964, and their representation in the labor force has risen from one-fourth to more than one-third of all workers.

The growing contribution made by women to the economic life of the country has developed largely as a result of many social and economic changes of the last 25 years. Women have been freed for work outside the home by scientific and technological advances that have simplified home chores. The growth of new industries in a dynamic economy and expanded activities in others, as in commerce and trade, have opened new doors for women in business, the professions, and the production of goods and services.

The increased demand for women as workers has been accompanied by broadened opportunities for their education and by girls' and women's increasing awareness of the need for more training. The great emphasis in recent years on completion of high school, on occupational training, on university education, and on continuing education for mature women has encouraged women to seek better preparation for jobs. This has facilitated their integration into the working world.

Women have made significant progress in the last 4 years and have found many new doors opened to them. Many of these gains can be credited to the President's Commission on the Status of Women, established in 1961 by President Kennedy.[1] The Commission studied the

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[1] See Part III for additional information on the President's Commission on the Status of Women and developments stemming from this Commission.

role of women in American life, examined their needs, and evaluated their potential contribution to the country's economic, social, and political development. The Commission's Report, *American Women*, contained many far-reaching recommendations that envisioned full partnership for women in the affairs of the Nation. At the Federal level the Interdepartmental Committee and the Citizens' Advisory Council on the Status of Women have followed through on the work of the original Commission. At the State level 45 Commissions on the Status of Women have not only made the full recognition and utilization of the Nation's womanpower a matter of wide concern but have achieved many gains for women. At all levels greater interest has been aroused in educating, counseling, and training women for their responsibilities as homemakers, mothers, and workers.

Women are promised equality and greater economic opportunity under Government programs that mark the beginning of a new national effort to eradicate discrimination based on sex, race, and age. The Civil Rights Act of 1964 is of particular interest to women, since its employment provisions prohibit discrimination in employment on the basis of sex, as well as race, color, religion, or national origin. The Equal Pay Act of 1963, which became effective in 1964, promises better wage protection for women by prohibiting wage discrimination on the basis of sex. Executive Order 11141, issued February 12, 1964, is helping older women by the broad implications of the order, which prohibits Federal Government contractors and subcontractors from arbitrary discrimination against older workers in recruitment and employment.

The Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 commits the Nation to remove the causes and consequences of poverty.[2] The act affects women as it does men. It is designed to help develop the potentialities of the most severely disadvantaged of our people, many of whom are women.

A society that aspires toward greatness must make use of every individual's talents and abilities, and it must give each and every one the opportunity to participate fully in the social and economic life of the country. President Johnson said, in connection with his search for talented women for Federal Government jobs:

> My whole aim in promoting women and picking out more women to serve in this Administration is to underline our profound belief that we can waste no talent, we can frustrate no creative power, we can neglect no skill in our search for an open and just and challenging society.

[2] The programs of this act are discussed in section 91.

1. Why Women Work

The social, economic, and cultural factors that have led to these important milestones have been at work for decades shaping a new pattern for women's lives. One of these factors is greater longevity, especially for women. The baby girl born in 1900 had a life expectancy of only 48 years, but the baby girl born today can expect to live, on the average, to the age of nearly 74 years. The factors that have extended the lifespan have reduced the incidence of disease and have given women greater vitality for fuller enjoyment of their added years.

Women are marrying young today—half of them marry by age 20.5, and more marry at age 18 than at any other age. They bear their children younger—half of them have borne their last child at about age 30. By the time the majority of women reach their midthirties, their children are in school and they can anticipate at least another 30 or 35 years of active life to fill with enriching experience. It is not surprising then that so many women search for new interests beyond the home; about 9 out of 10 women work outside the home some time in their lives.

Whether or not a particular woman will look for employment depends on various economic, social, and psychological factors at the time in her life when she debates the decision. But financial reasons are the strongest motivation for most women. At least, this is the explanation usually given by women in surveys that have attempted to probe their motivation for working. Economic necessity is, of course, the overriding reason for employment among mothers of young children, among women who have to support themselves, among wives whose husbands have inadequate or no income, and among women who have to support dependents without the help of a husband.

The majority of women in the labor force are married. They are concentrated in families in low- and the lower range of middle-income brackets. These wives work to supplement inadequate family income, to raise the family's standard of living in general, or to help pay for a home or their children's education.

Financial remuneration is, however, not the sole reason that so many women are in the labor force. It is significant that the more education a woman acquires, the more likely she is to seek paid employment, irrespective of her financial status. The educated woman desires to contribute her skills and talents to the economy not only for the financial rewards, but even more to reap the psychic rewards that come from achievement and recognition and service to society.

Numbers and Trends

2. *Twenty-six Million Women Workers*

About 26.1 million women were in the labor force in April 1965. This figure exceeds by nearly 5.7 million the wartime employment peak reached in July 1944 during World War II, when there were 20.4 million women workers. It compares with about 5 million at the turn of the century and with the prewar figure of slightly less than 14 million in 1940 (table 1).

There has been a striking advance in this century in the proportion that women are of all workers. In 1900 women were only 18 percent of the total labor force; in 1940, about 25 percent. The proportion reached a high of 36 percent during World War II and then dropped sharply to 28 percent with the return of male veterans to civilian jobs, before starting to climb again. Today 35 percent of all workers are women.

Table 1.—Women in the Labor Force, Selected Years, 1890–1965

(Women 14 years of age and over)

Year	Number	As percent of all workers	As percent of woman population
HIGHLIGHTS [1]			
April 1965	26, 108, 000	35. 0	37. 3
Start of the sixties (April 1960)	23, 239, 000	33. 3	36. 3
Midfifties (April 1955)	20, 154, 000	31. 2	33. 8
Korean conflict (April 1953)	19, 296, 000	30. 6	33. 1
Pre-Korean conflict (April 1950)	18, 063, 000	29. 0	32. 1
Post-World War II (April 1947)	16, 320, 000	27. 6	30. 0
World War II (April 1945)	19, 570, 000	36. 1	37. 0
Pre-World War II (March 1940)	13, 840, 000	25. 4	27. 6
LONG-TERM TRENDS [2]			
1930 (April)	10, 396, 000	21. 9	23. 6
1920 (January)	8, 229, 000	20. 4	22. 7
1900 (June)	4, 999, 000	18. 1	20. 0
1890 (June)	3, 704, 000	17. 0	18. 2

[1] Civilian labor force.

[2] Decennial census (total labor force).

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Employment and Earnings, May 1965 and 1960. U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Annual Report on the Labor Force, 1940–55. Social Science Research Council: "Labor Force in the United States, 1890–1960." 1948.

The remarkable rise in the numbers and proportions of women in the labor force is due to a combination of demographic, economic, and social developments. Among demographic factors, the most important were the overall increase in population and the changed ratio of women to men in the population, resulting from the greater longevity of women. Economic and social factors included (1) the increasing demand for labor as the Nation changed first from an agriculture-based to an industry-based economy and then to a service-based economy and (2) the resultant trend toward urban living. To these factors were added more recently the widespread use of labor-saving equipment in the home, rising aspirations toward a higher standard of living and a higher level of education, and increased job opportunities for women in rapidly expanding clerical, service, and sales occupations. Finally, an evolution in social attitudes and values encouraged women to develop their abilities and talents to the fullest in paid work.

Between 1900 and 1965 the female population 14 years of age and over increased nearly threefold. During the same period the ratio of men to women in the population changed considerably. In 1900 men outnumbered women by over 1.3 million, but today there are about 4 million more women than men of working age (14 years and over). The female labor force increased more than fivefold during this period. The percentage of women workers among all women of working age advanced from 20 percent in 1900 to 28 percent in 1940 and to 37.3 percent in 1965.

3. Nonwhite Women in the Labor Force

The civilian labor force in April 1965 included 3.4 million nonwhite women. They represented 13 percent of the civilian woman labor force and 41 percent of all nonwhite workers. More than 90 percent of the nonwhite women in the population in 1960 were Negro according to the decennial Census of Population, but the geographical distribution of Negro women ranged from less than 10 percent of all nonwhite women in some Western States to almost 100 percent in some Southern States.[3]

4. Employment and Unemployment

Over 24.6 million women were employed in April 1965, and an additional 31,000 were in the Armed Forces (table 2).

Unemployed women—those seeking work—numbered 1.5 million.

[3] For detailed information on Negro women in the labor force, see "Negro Women Workers in 1960." Bull. 287, Women's Bureau, U.S. Department of Labor. 1964.

This means that there were about 18 women who had jobs for every woman who was unemployed. While 35 percent of all workers were women, 41 percent of all unemployed persons were women.

Table 2.—Employment Status of Women and Men, April 1965

(Persons 14 years of age and over)

Employment status	Women		Men	
	Number	Percent distribution	Number	Percent distribution
Population	69,994,000	100.0	65,817,000	100.0
In the labor force	26,139,000	37.3	51,168,000	77.7
Civilian labor force	26,108,000	37.3	48,513,000	73.7
Employed	24,648,000	35.2	46,422,000	70.5
Unemployed	1,460,000	2.1	2,091,000	3.2
Armed Forces	31,000	(1)	2,655,000	4.0
Not in the labor force	43,855,000	62.7	14,649,000	22.3
Keeping house	35,284,000	50.4	148,000	.2
In school	6,662,000	9.5	6,385,000	9.7
Other [2]	1,910,000	2.7	8,116,000	12.3

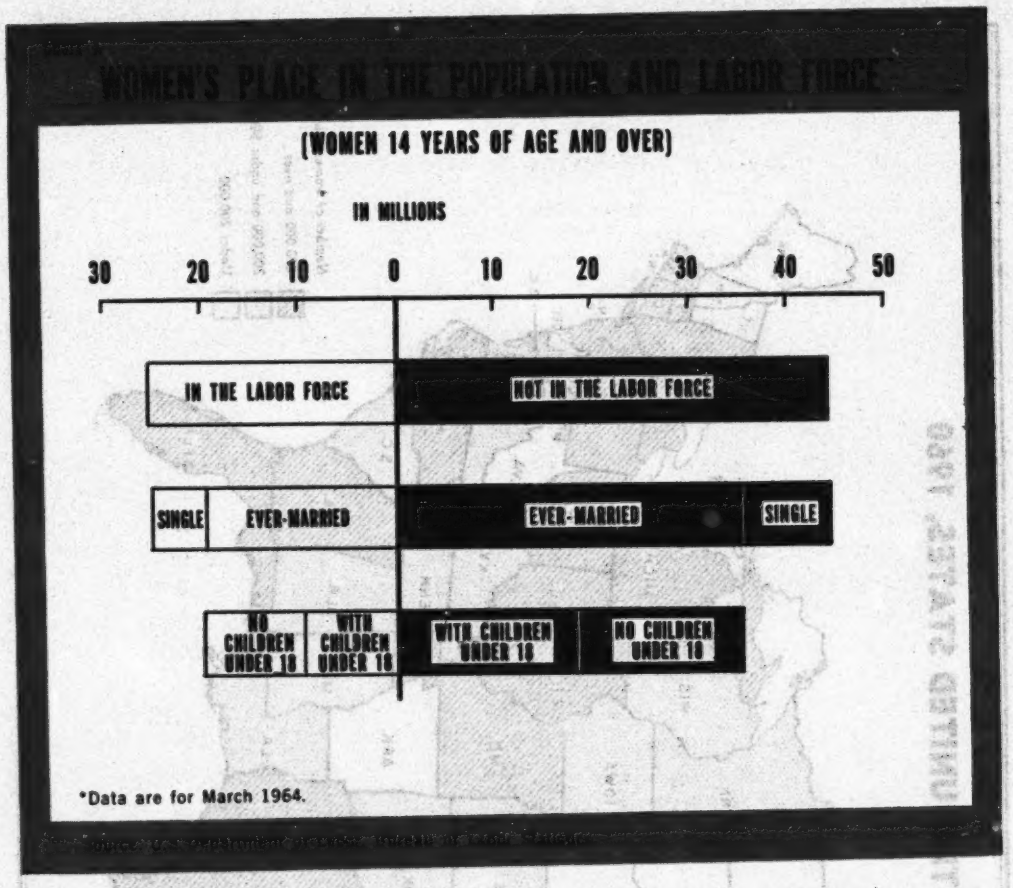
[1] Less than 0.05 percent.
[2] Includes 607,000 (0.9 percent) women and 1,109,000 (1.7 percent) men unable to work.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Employment and Earnings, May 1965.

The unemployment rate has been higher for women than for men in recent years, and the gap between the two rates has been widening. Following the recession of 1960–61 and the high unemployment rates prevailing in 1961 (7.2 percent for women and 6.5 percent for men), the rates for both women and men declined, but the employment situation did not improve for women as much as it did for men. Women's unemployment remained fairly high at 6.2 percent for 1964, while the rate for men dropped to 4.7 percent. (For a more detailed discussion of women's unemployment, including the unemployment of nonwhite women, see section 40.)

5. Most Women Are Homemakers

The majority of women continue to be homemakers, whether or not they also have jobs (chart A). In April 1965, 44 million women were not in the labor force, and 35 million of these devoted their full time to housekeeping. One-third of all married women and many single women as well are both homemakers and workers. During a



workweek in April 1965, 50 percent of all women were keeping house full time, and about 37 percent were either full- or part-time workers. Most of the remainder were girls 14 to 20 years of age who were in school.

6. Geographical Distribution of Women Workers

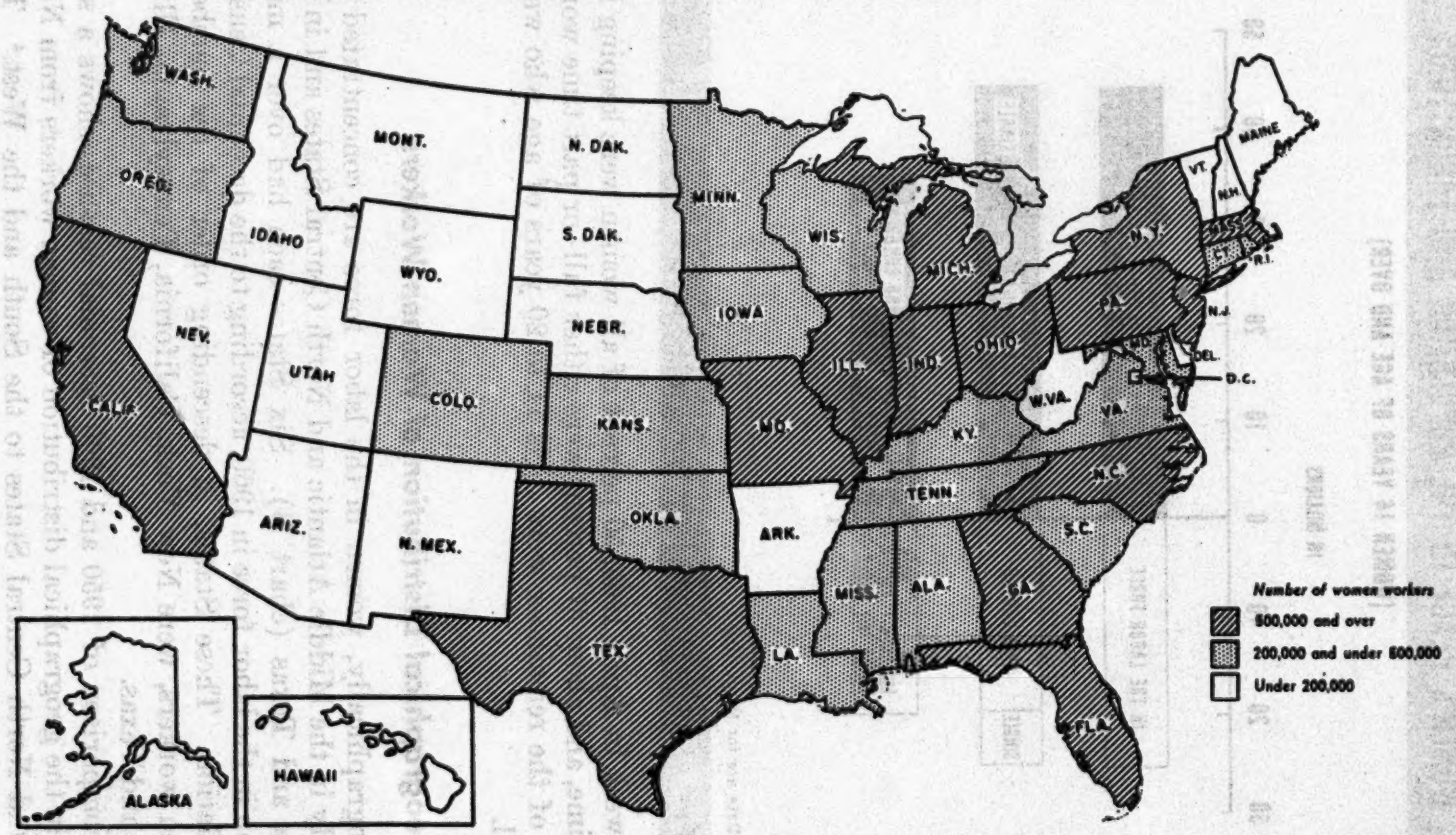
Geographically, women in the labor force are concentrated most heavily in the Middle Atlantic and North Central States and in California and Texas (chart B). Six States each had over a million women in the labor force in 1960, according to the decennial Census of Population. These States, in descending order of the number of women workers, were New York, California, Pennsylvania, Illinois, Ohio, and Texas.

A comparison of 1950 and 1960 decennial censuses shows a slight shift in the geographical distribution of women workers from Northeast and North Central States to the South and the West.[4] These

[4] See "Women Workers in 1960: Geographical Differences" Bull. 284. Women's Bureau, U.S. Department of Labor. 1962.

Chart B

WOMEN WORKERS IN THE UNITED STATES, 1960



Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

changes reflect population migration patterns and, related to these, the movement of industry into the South and the West.

Women's representation in the labor force varies considerably throughout the country. According to the 1960 census, the highest percentages of women among all workers were found in the urban District of Columbia (44 percent) and in New Hampshire (36 percent). The lowest ratios of women to all workers were found in North Dakota (27 percent) and Alaska (24 percent). These percentages are related to the ratio of women to men in the population and to the existence of industries that employ relatively large numbers of women.

The percentage of women workers among all women 14 years of age and over in the population (the labor-force participation rate) was between 32 and 36 percent in a majority of the States in 1960. It was highest in the District of Columbia (52 percent), followed by Nevada (41 percent) and Alaska, Hawaii, and New Hampshire (40 percent each); it was lowest in Kentucky (27 percent) and West Virginia (24 percent). These variations in labor-force participation rates are related to the availability of jobs as well as to family tradition, local customs, and social attitudes.

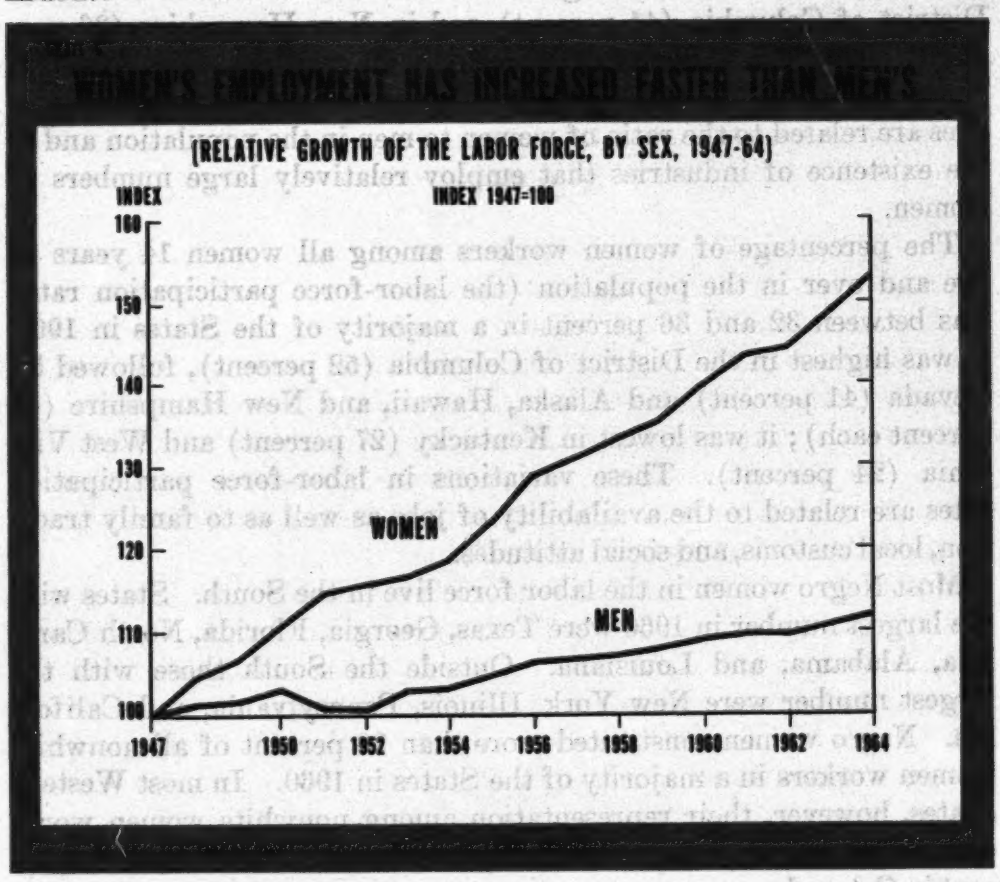
Most Negro women in the labor force live in the South. States with the largest number in 1960 were Texas, Georgia, Florida, North Carolina, Alabama, and Louisiana. Outside the South those with the largest number were New York, Illinois, Pennsylvania, and California. Negro women constituted more than 90 percent of all nonwhite women workers in a majority of the States in 1960. In most Western States, however, their representation among nonwhite women workers was lower, ranging from less than 1 percent in Hawaii to 82 percent in Colorado.

Labor-force participation rates of Negro women are traditionally high. Among States with at least 1,000 Negro women in the population in 1960, the percentage who were in the labor force was highest in Alaska (59 percent), followed by Nevada (54 percent) and the District of Columbia and Florida (53 percent each). It was lowest in Mississippi (34 percent), Louisiana and Oklahoma (36 percent each), and Michigan (37 percent).

7. Annual Growth in Labor Force of Women and Men, 1947–64

The important advances in employment that women have made since World War II are brought out clearly by comparing their annual average number in the labor force between 1947 and 1964 with that of men. Such a comparison shows that the number of women in the civ-

ilian labor force increased by 53 percent (from 16.9 million to 25.8 million), while the number of men rose only 12 percent (from 43.3 million to 48.4 million) (chart C). Consequently, in 1964 women were 35 percent of the total civilian labor force compared with only 28 percent in 1947.



8. Rise in Median Age of Women Workers

Since the turn of the century there has been a continuous rise in the median (half above/half below) age of women workers. In 1900 their median age was 26 years; in 1940, 32 years; in 1945, 34 years; and in 1950, 37 years. By 1965 it had risen to 41 years compared with 40 years for men workers. Nonwhite women in the labor force were somewhat younger. In 1964 their median age was about 38 years.

The median age of workers was influenced not only by the changing age and sex composition of the population, but also by such developments as reforms in child labor and school attendance laws, changing social attitudes, and the manpower demands of two World Wars. In 1938, for example, the Federal Fair Labor Standards Act established a minimum age of 16 years, generally, for employees engaged in interstate commerce or in the production of goods for interstate commerce.

Nearly all States have passed compulsory school attendance laws establishing a minimum age at which pupils are permitted to leave school, usually 16 years. This trend, combined with efforts to keep pupils from dropping out of school and to prepare them for jobs by a variety of training and counseling programs, has tended to delay the entrance of young people into the labor force.

Prior to World War I the typical woman worker was young and unmarried. Traditional social patterns discouraged the employment of married women unless dire economic necessity required them to support the family. Today, in contrast, the typical woman worker is 41 years old and married. She is, in fact, an accepted member of the labor force, irrespective of her marital status or her age. Two World Wars, with their exceptional demand for production workers, encouraged large numbers of adult women to enter employment to help with the war effort. After World War II the manpower needs and consumer demands of an expanding economy caused many mature women to remain on the job and inspired others to join them. These various developments tended to raise the median age of women workers—and at an accelerated rate after 1940.

A comparison of the distribution of the woman labor force in 1940 and 1965 by age group clearly illustrates the shift toward the employment of more mature women (table 3). In 1940 more than 2 out of 5 women workers were 35 years of age or over. In 1965, in contrast, more than 3 out of 5 women in the labor force were 35 years or over.

Labor Force Participation of Women

9. *Variations in Labor Force Participation by Age Group, 1940–65*

The labor-force participation rate of women is the percent of all women in the population 14 years of age and over who are working or seeking work. It therefore includes the unemployed.

In past decades the highest labor-force participation rate of women was traditionally among those 18 to 24 years old. In 1940, for example, from a high of 46 percent for this age group the rate was successively lower for each older age group (table 4). By 1960, however, this pattern had changed, as women developed a two-phase lifetime working cycle—taking a job when first out of school, withdrawing from the labor force for marriage and motherhood, and returning to paid work in later years when the children are in school or on their own. In recent years the proportion of mature women in the labor force actually has exceeded the proportion of young women.

Table 3.—Women in the Population and Labor Force,[1] by Age, 1940 and 1965[2]

(Women 14 years of age and over)

Age	Number 1965	Percent distribution 1965	Percent distribution 1940	Percent increase 1940–65
POPULATION				
Total	69,963,000	100.0	100.0	39.5
14 to 17 years	6,887,000	9.8	9.5	44.0
18 to 24 years	9,770,000	14.0	16.7	16.6
25 to 34 years	11,240,000	16.1	21.5	4.5
35 to 44 years	12,436,000	17.8	18.2	36.4
45 to 54 years	11,187,000	16.0	14.9	49.7
55 to 64 years	8,705,000	12.4	10.2	70.2
65 years and over	9,742,000	13.9	9.0	116.0
LABOR FORCE				
Total	26,108,000	100.0	100.0	88.6
14 to 17 years	1,078,000	4.1	2.8	176.4
18 to 24 years	4,658,000	17.8	28.1	19.7
25 to 34 years	4,295,000	16.5	27.6	12.4
35 to 44 years	5,816,000	22.3	19.4	117.0
45 to 54 years	5,632,000	21.6	13.2	207.8
55 to 64 years	3,607,000	13.8	6.6	292.1
65 years and over	1,024,000	3.9	2.2	230.3

[1] Civilian noninstitutional population and civilian labor force.

[2] Data are for March 1940 and April 1965.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Employment and Earnings, May 1965. U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P-50, Nos. 22 and 32.

Between 1960 and 1965 the number of girls 14 to 19 years old in the population increased by about 2 million as a result of the World War II "baby crop." However, in spite of the larger number of young women and girls in the population today, their labor-force participation rate shows little change between 1940 and 1965. Two factors are primarily responsible: first, the tendency for girls to extend their training and schooling before taking a job; second, the early age at which they marry and have children, thus being kept out of the labor force by family responsibilities.

The labor-force participation rate for girls aged 14 to 17 years increased from 8 percent in 1940 to 17 percent in 1950 and remained

Table 4.—Labor-Force Participation Rates of Women, by Age, Selected Years, 1940–65 [1]

(Women 14 years of age and over)

Age	1965	1960	1950	1940
Total	37.3	36.3	32.1	27.6
14 to 17 years	15.7	16.6	16.8	8.2
18 to 24 years	47.7	46.2	44.8	46.4
25 to 34 years	38.2	35.9	33.6	35.5
35 to 44 years	46.8	44.3	38.2	29.4
45 to 54 years	50.3	49.5	37.1	24.5
55 to 64 years	41.4	37.4	27.6	18.0
65 years and over	10.5	10.8	9.7	6.9

[1] Data are for March 1940 and April in other years, and are based on civilian noninstitutional population.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Employment and Earnings, May 1965, and Special Labor Force Report No. 14. U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P-57, No. 94, and P-50, Nos. 22 and 32.

stationary until 1965, when it dropped to 16 percent. The rate for young women aged 18 to 24 years rose slightly, from 45 percent in 1950 to 48 percent in 1965, but this was only about 1 percent higher than the rate in 1940. And the rate for women 25 to 34 years old rose from 34 percent in 1950 to 38 percent in 1965—only about 3 percent higher than in 1940.

10. Rise in Labor Force Participation of Mature Women

The increasing tendency of women to return to the labor force after their family responsibilities have lessened is illustrated by the changes since 1940 in the labor-force participation rates of mature women. While the rate for all women 14 years and over increased by 35 percent between 1940 and 1965, and that for women 35 to 44 years old rose by 59 percent, the rate for women 45 to 64 years of age increased considerably more. Among women 45 to 54 years of age, for example, the labor-force participation rate was twice as great in 1965 as it was in 1940, and among women 55 to 64 the rate increased from 18 to 41 percent—a rise of 130 percent. Even among women 65 years of age and over there was increased labor force participation—11 percent in 1965 compared with 7 percent in 1940, or an increase of 52 percent.

The dramatic increase in the number of mature women in the labor force is illustrated in table 5. In age group 35 to 44 years the number of women workers more than doubled between 1940 and 1965. In age group 45 to 54 years their number more than tripled, and in age group 55 to 64 years their number increased almost fourfold. Even among the oldest group of women, 65 years and over, the number of women workers rose almost 3½ times during that period.

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The corresponding increase in the woman population between 1940 and 1965 was substantially less. The highest rise was for age group 65 years and over

TABLE 5.—WOMEN IN THE CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE, BY AGE, 1940[1] AND 1965

(Women 14 years of age and over)

Age	Number in the labor force		Percent increase in the labor force 1940–65	Percent increase in the population 1940–65
	1965	1940		
Total	26,108,000	13,840,000	88.6	39.5
14 to 19 years	2,463,000	1,460,000	68.7	36.7
20 to 24 years	3,273,000	2,820,000	16.1	14.1
25 to 34 years	4,295,000	3,820,000	12.4	4.5
35 to 44 years	5,816,000	2,680,000	117.0	36.4
45 to 54 years	5,632,000	1,830,000	207.8	49.7
55 to 64 years	3,607,000	920,000	292.1	70.2
65 years and over	1,024,000	310,000	230.3	116.0

[1] Data are for March 1940 and April 1965.

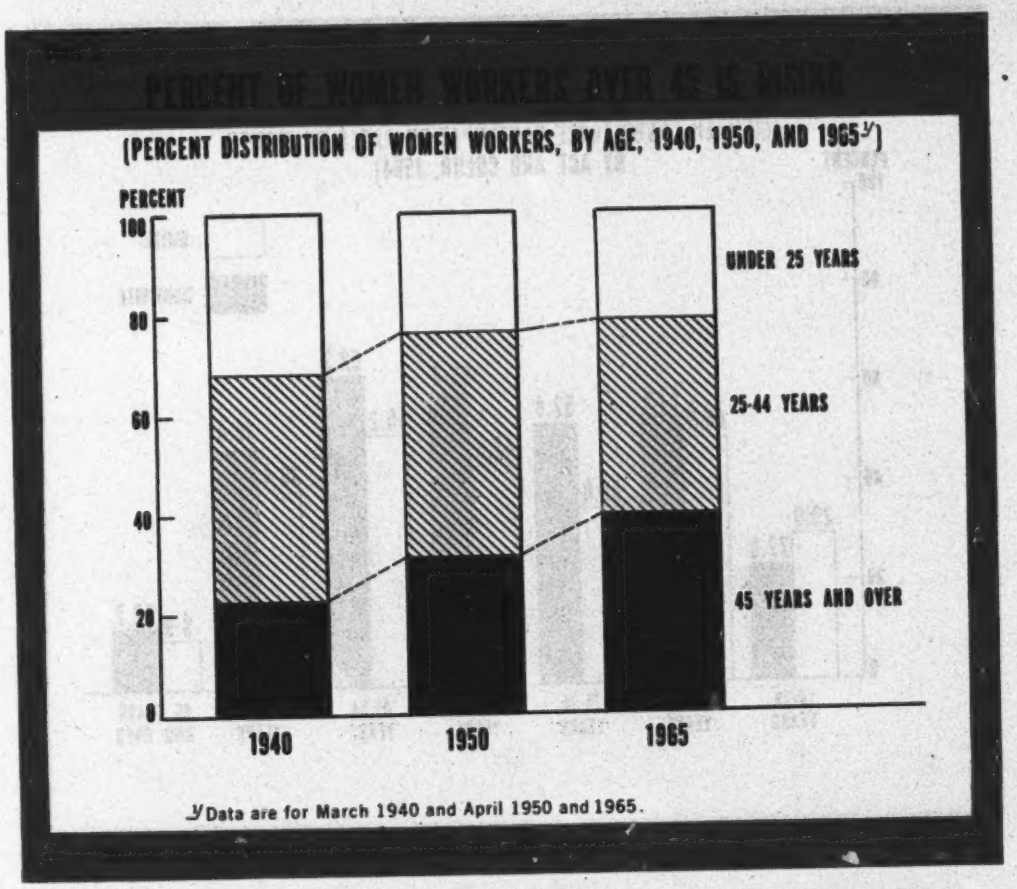
Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Employment and Earnings, May 1965. U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P-50, No. 22.

The significant extent to which women aged 45 and over have moved into the labor force in recent years is indicated by chart D. In 1940 such women were only 22 percent of all women in the labor force, but by 1965 they constituted 39 percent. During the same period the proportion of the under-25 age group dropped from 31 to 22 percent, and that of women in the central years (25 to 44) dropped from 47 to 39 percent.

11. Labor Force Participation of White and Nonwhite Women

A comparison of labor-force participation rates for white and nonwhite women in 1964 shows that, except among teenagers, relatively more nonwhite than white women were in the labor force (chart E). The difference is most striking in age group 25 to 34 years, where 53 percent of nonwhite women, but only 35 percent of white women, were in the labor force. This compares with an overall average labor-force participation rate of 46 percent for nonwhite and 36 percent for white women. Among both white and nonwhite women, the highest labor-force participation rate was in age group 45 to 54 years—62 percent for nonwhite women, and 50 percent for white women.

Traditionally a much higher proportion of nonwhite than white women are in the labor force. The main reason for this difference



is that economic responsibility for maintaining the family often falls more heavily on nonwhite than on white women. In recent years, however, mature white women have entered the labor force in such large numbers that the difference has been reduced slightly.

A comparison of proportions of women in the labor force by age and by color for 1954 and 1964 shows the changes that took place in the female labor force during that decade (table 6).

12. *Labor Force Participation of Women 18 to 64 Years Old*

Labor-force participation rates usually are computed for ages 14 years and over, the standard working ages used by the Bureau of the Census. A more appropriate rate for women, however, is one calculated for ages 18 to 64 years, the age group at which employment is most likely. Girls under 18 years of age, for example, preferably should be in school or in training, and women over 65 should be free to retire from the labor force and not under economic compulsion to work.

Data are not available for computing labor-force participation rates for all women 18 to 64 years of age prior to 1947 or for nonwhite

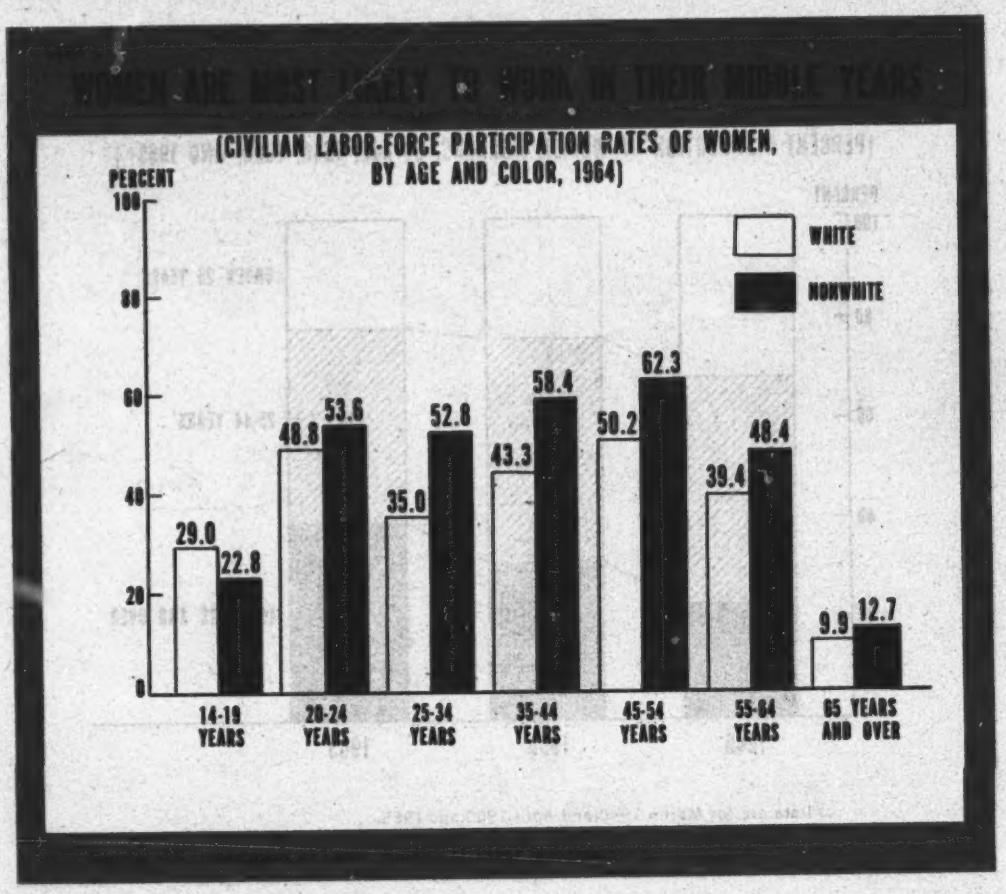


Table 6.—Women as Percent of Total Labor Force, by Age and Color, 1954 and 1964 [1]

(Women 14 years of age and over)

Age	*All women as percent of total labor force*		*White women as percent of white labor force*		*Nonwhite women as percent of nonwhite labor force*	
	1964	*1954*	*1964*	*1954*	*1964*	*1954*
Total	34.8	30.9	34.0	30.0	41.3	38.4
14 to 19 years	41.7	40.3	42.1	40.9	38.9	36.0
14 and 15 years	36.0	30.7	36.7	29.3	30.1	37.3
16 and 17 years	38.8	37.7	39.2	38.1	35.0	34.9
18 and 19 years	46.4	45.5	46.7	46.7	44.4	36.2
20 to 24 years	40.3	44.3	40.7	44.1	41.9	45.2
25 to 34 years	29.7	28.1	28.1	26.7	40.9	38.7
35 to 44 years	33.5	30.9	32.3	29.7	42.6	40.7
45 to 54 years	36.3	30.5	35.5	29.7	43.3	37.6
55 to 64 years	33.8	26.2	33.3	25.5	38.9	33.4
65 years and over	31.3	20.9	31.0	20.6	33.7	24.0

[1] Annual averages.

Source: "Manpower Report of the President and A Report on Manpower Requirements, Resources, Utilization, and Training by the U.S. Department of Labor." March 1965.

women prior to 1954, but figures for each year from 1947 to 1964 for all women show the steady increase in women's entry into the labor force during that period (table 7). In 1947, 35 percent of women 18 to 64 years old were either working or seeking work. In 1964 this proportion had risen to 45 percent.

Nonwhite women in this age group had a labor-force participation rate about 10 percent higher than that for all women. Their rate rose from 51 percent in 1954 to 55 percent in 1964 as compared with the rise for all women from 39 percent to 45 percent.

Table 7.—Labor-Force Participation Rates of Women 18 to 64 Years of Age, Selected Years, 1947–64

Year	All women	Nonwhite women
1964	44.7	55.1
1963	44.2	54.3
1962	43.5	53.9
1960	42.7	53.5
1958	41.8	53.0
1956	41.1	51.6
1954	38.6	50.7
1952	38.3	[1]
1950	37.2	[1]
1948	35.6	[1]
1947	34.8	[1]

[1] Data not available.

Source: "Manpower Report of the President and A Report on Manpower Requirements, Resources, Utilization, and Training by the U.S. Department of Labor." March 1965.

Marital Status of Women Workers

13. Nearly 3 Out of 5 Women Workers Are Married

The increasing tendency of married women to go to work has been the most important factor in the growth of the woman labor force. Fifty-seven percent of all women in the labor force in March 1964 were married (husband present), and 23 percent were single (table 8). An additional 5 percent were married (husband absent), 9 percent were widowed, and 6 percent were divorced.

This is a remarkable change from 1940, when only 30 percent of all women workers were married (husband present) and 48 percent were single (chart F). The number of married women (husband present) in the labor force increased by 10 million between 1940 and 1964. This represented a rise of 244 percent, an increase substantially larger than their 47-percent rise in the population.

Table 8.—Women in the Population and Labor Force,[1] by Marital Status, March 1940 and 1964

(Women 14 years of age and over)

Marital status	Number 1964	Percent distribution 1964	Percent distribution 1940	Percent increase 1940–64
POPULATION				
Total	69,503,000	100.0	100.0	37.5
Single	14,132,000	20.3	27.6	1.4
Married	44,754,000	64.4	59.5	48.7
Husband present	42,045,000	60.5	56.4	47.4
Husband absent	2,709,000	3.9	3.1	72.1
Widowed	8,535,000	12.3	[2] 12.9	[2] 62.8
Divorced	2,082,000	3.0		
LABOR FORCE				
Total	25,399,000	100.0	100.0	83.5
Single	5,781,000	22.8	48.5	[3] 13.8
Married	15,790,000	62.2	36.4	213.3
Husband present	14,461,000	56.9	30.3	244.3
Husband absent	1,329,000	5.2	6.1	58.2
Widowed	2,355,000	9.3	[2] 15.1	[2] 83.2
Divorced	1,473,000	5.8		

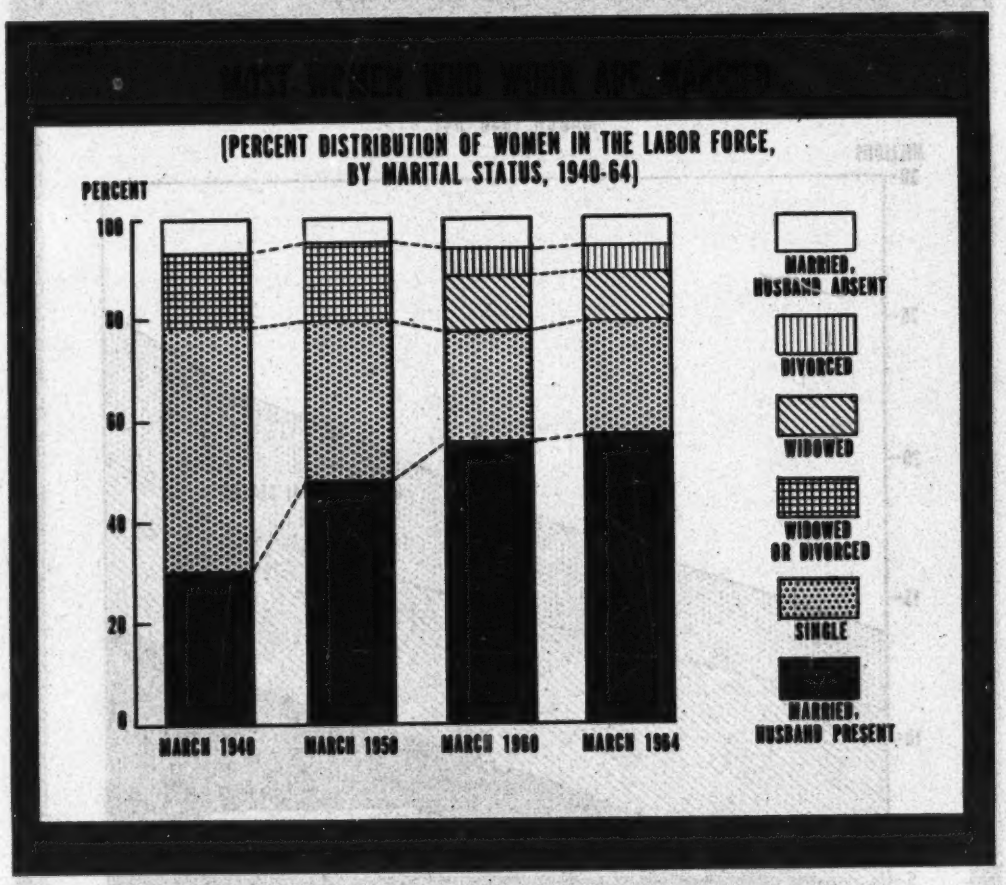
[1] Civilian noninstitutional population and civilian labor force.
[2] Not reported separately in 1940.
[3] A percent decrease instead of an increase.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 50. U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P-50, No. 22.

In contrast, the number of single women in the labor force declined by almost a million between 1940 and 1964, and the proportion of all women workers who were single dropped from 48 percent to only 23 percent. Higher marriage rates contributed to this decline in the number of single women workers. Marriage rates started to rise during World War II and reached their peak during 1946–48. By 1964, about 60 percent of all women in the population 14 years of age and over were married and living with their husbands compared with 56 percent in 1940. Currently at least 9 out of 10 girls can expect to marry.

The other group of women in the labor force—those widowed, divorced, or separated from their husbands for other reasons, including those whose husbands are in the Armed Forces—remained at the

same proportion (approximately one-fifth) during the period 1940–64 (chart G). In actual numbers, however, they almost doubled.

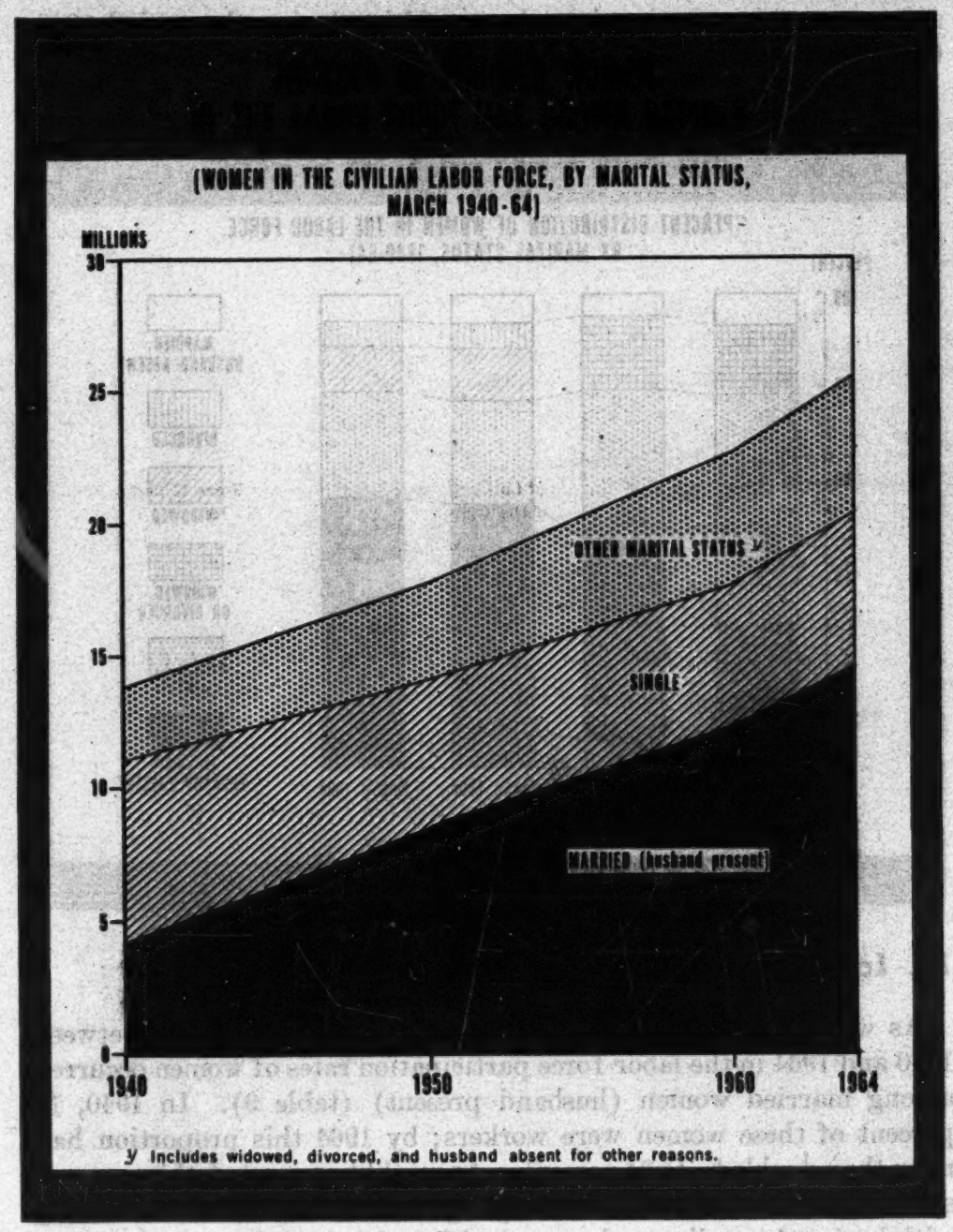


14. *Labor Force Participation of Women by Marital Status*

As was indicated previously, the most significant change between 1940 and 1964 in the labor-force participation rates of women occurred among married women (husband present) (table 9). In 1940, 15 percent of these women were workers; by 1964 this proportion had more than doubled—to 34 percent. As might be expected, this rate was still much lower than that of single girls, married women not living with husbands, or divorced women, although married women outnumbered the other categories combined.

The labor-force participation rate of married women (husband present) showed a steady increase between 1940 and 1964. In contrast, that of single women rose from 48 percent in 1940 to 51 percent in 1950, dropped to 44 percent in 1960, and then declined further to 41 percent in 1964—the lowest for the period.

Women in marital status other than single or married (husband present) characteristically have high labor-force participation rates.



Almost half (49.1 percent) of the 2.7 million married women (not widows or divorcees) whose husbands were absent from home were workers in 1964. This group included about 100,000 women whose husbands were in the Armed Forces, but consisted largely of those whose husbands were absent for such reasons as employment away from home, residence in an institution, separation by choice, or desertion.

Table 9.—Labor-Force Participation Rates of Women, by Marital Status, Selected Years, 1940–64 [1]

(Women 14 years of age and over)

Marital status	*1964*	*1960*	*1950*	*1940*
Total	36.5	34.8	31.4	27.4
Single	40.9	44.1	50.5	48.1
Married	35.3	31.7	24.8	16.7
Husband present	34.4	30.5	23.8	14.7
Husband absent	49.1	51.8	47.4	53.4
Widowed	27.6	29.8	[2] 36.0	[2] 32.0
Divorced	70.7	71.6		

[1] Data are for March of each year.
[2] Not reported separately in 1950 and 1940.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report Nos. 50 and 26. U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P–50, Nos. 29 and 22.

Of the 8.5 million widowed women in the population in 1964, 28 percent were in the labor force; of the 2.1 million divorced women, 71 percent. The labor force participation of these two groups combined had increased slightly since 1940. However, a much smaller percentage of widows than of divorcees were workers, mainly because widows represent an older age group.

15. Labor Force Participation of Women by Age and Marital Status

When labor-force participation rates of single and married women (husband present) are analyzed according to age, it is evident that the probability of a woman's working is influenced more by marital status than by age. Differences in participation are particularly noticeable among women 25 to 29 years old, the age group in which married women are most likely to have young children who need their care (table 10). In this age group 88 percent of single women, but only 29 percent of married women living with their husbands, worked in 1964. In the age group 30 to 34 years, the difference was still pronounced—86 percent of single women, but only 32 percent of married women (husband present), were in the labor force.

The peak in labor force participation of single women (88 percent) was in the age group 25 to 29 years; the peak of married women with husband present (45 percent) was in the age group 45 to 54 years.

For each age group starting with 20 to 24 years, the highest rate of participation in the labor force was among single women and the lowest rate was among married women living with their husbands.

Table 10.—Labor-Force Participation Rates of Women, by Age and Marital Status, March 1964

Age	Marital status		
	Single	Married (husband present)	Other[1]
Total	40.9	34.4	38.7
14 to 19 years	23.5	31.1	28.7
20 to 24 years	74.0	36.6	50.3
25 to 29 years	87.6	28.8	67.0
30 to 34 years	86.3	32.3	54.2
35 to 44 years	83.0	39.4	63.7
45 to 54 years	75.0	44.8	70.2
55 to 64 years	67.0	31.3	53.1
65 to 69 years	37.0	12.2	21.9
70 years and over	9.2	3.5	6.3

[1] Widowed, divorced, or separated or husband absent for other reasons.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 50.

The percentage of widowed, separated, and divorced women in the labor force fluctuated, with a high of 70 percent for those between the ages of 45 and 54 years.

Family Status of Women Workers

16. Types of Families in the Population

There were almost 47.5 million families in the United States in March 1964, with the 41.3 million husband-wife families forming 87 percent of the total.[5] Ten percent of the families had a woman as the head, and the remaining 3 percent were headed by a man without a wife.

Husband-wife families usually are larger than those headed by a woman or by a man without a wife. In March 1964 there were four or more members in nearly half of the husband-wife families, but in only about one-third of the families headed by a woman and about one-fifth of those headed by a man without a wife present.

About three-fifths of all husband-wife families had one or more own children under 18 years of age, about one-tenth had at least one additional family member 18 years of age or over, and three-tenths had no children under 18 years of age and no other family member 18 years of age or over. In the latter group were many older couples whose chil-

[5] Current Population Reports, P–20, No. 139. Bureau of the Census, U.S. Department of Commerce.

dren were grown and no longer living with them and many childless young couples.

Families headed by a woman had a somewhat different composition. Of the 4.9 million such families in 1964, more than two-fifths consisted of two members, almost one-fourth consisted of three members, and the remainder consisted of four or more members. Nearly half of the women were widows, and two-fifths were separated or divorced.

More than half of the women had no own children under 18 years of age, but 17 percent had one own child and 31 percent had two or more own children. Moreover, more than half of the women family heads had children under 18 years living with them who were related to them but were not their own. About 18 percent of those with own children had children under 6 years of age. Twenty-two percent of all women family heads were nonwhite; they numbered 1.1 million.

17. Unrelated Individuals in the Population

In addition to these family groups of related individuals, there were about 7 million women and 4.4 million men classified as "unrelated individuals," who were not living with relatives. About 5.8 million of these women had their own homes or apartments and were living independently as "primary individuals." As a group, these were older women (median age over 60 years), and most were widows. The other 1.2 million women in this classification, most of whom were in their thirties and single, were mainly roomers, boarders, hotel guests, and resident employees.

18. Labor Force Participation of Women in Different Types of Families

The labor-force participation rates of women vary among the different types of families. Obviously, women who do not have husbands are more likely to work than are those with husbands. Half of the women family heads were in the labor force in 1964, in contrast to only 34 percent of the wives living with their husbands.

Employment Status of Husband-Wife and Female-Head Families

19. Husband-Wife Families

In 36.3 million husband-wife families the husbands were in the labor force in March 1964. In 48 percent of these families another member of the family also was in the labor force. About 1.2 million of the

husbands were unemployed (an unemployment rate of 3.4 percent), and about 5 million were not in the labor force.

20. Female-Head Families

Fifty percent of the women who had families but no husbands in March 1964 were in the labor force (table 11). In 47 percent of the 2.4 million families whose women heads were workers, another member of the family group also was in the labor force. However, 1.3 million female family heads were the sole breadwinners for their families and 151,000 were unemployed. Their unemployment rate of 6.2 percent was considerably higher than that for husbands in husband-wife families. The remaining 2.5 million female family heads were not in the labor force.

An analysis of the labor force status of female family heads by age reveals that in 1964 the labor-force participation rate was highest for those 45 to 54 years old (71 percent) (table 12). These women accounted for only 29 percent of all female family heads in the labor force and 20 percent of all female family heads in the population. In the next younger age group (35 to 44 years old), nearly 64 percent of the women were workers; in the next higher age group (55 to 64 years old), 53 percent.

Although the youngest age group (14 to 24 years old) was numerically the smallest and represented only 5 percent of all female family heads in the population and 4 percent in the labor force, about 40 percent were in the labor force. At the other extreme women 65 years of age and over represented the second largest group of female family heads in the population, but only 12 percent were in the labor force.

Significantly, families headed by women were the most economically deprived—in 1964 over two-fifths of such families lived in poverty, with a family income of less than $3,000. They were also the most persistently poor—it is estimated that 76 percent of these families who were poor in 1962 were also poor in 1963.[6]

Working Wives

The growing tendency for married women to go into paid work is reflected in the number and proportion of working couples in the Nation.

Of the 14.5 million wives (husband present) in the labor force in March 1964, about 13.5 million had husbands who were also in the labor force. These working couples represented 32 percent of all couples in

[6] Economic Report of the President. January 1965.

Table 11.—Employment Status of Female Family Heads, by Employment Status of Other Family Members, March 1964

(Persons 14 years of age and over)

Employment status of other family members	Female family heads					
	Population	Labor force			Unemployment rate	Percent in labor force
		Total	Employed	Unemployed		
Number	4,882,000	2,427,000	2,276,000	151,000	6.2	49.7
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	----------	----------
Some other member in the labor force	46.6	46.6	47.0	41.4	5.6	49.8
Some other member employed [1]	41.2	41.5	41.8	36.2	5.5	50.0
Some other unemployed, none employed	5.4	5.2	5.2	5.3	6.3	47.9
No other member in the labor force	53.4	53.4	53.0	58.6	6.9	49.7

[1] Includes families with one member or more employed regardless of the employment status of other members.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 50.

Table 12.—Labor Force Status of Female Family Heads, by Age, March 1964

(Women 14 years of age and over)

Age	Number		Percent distribution		Percent in labor force
	Population	Labor force	Population	Labor force	
Total	4,882,000	2,427,000	100.0	100.0	49.7
14 to 24 years	257,000	104,000	5.3	4.3	40.5
25 to 34 years	640,000	362,000	13.1	14.9	56.6
35 to 44 years	1,100,000	702,000	22.5	28.9	63.8
45 to 54 years	984,000	697,000	20.2	28.7	70.8
55 to 64 years	818,000	435,000	16.8	17.9	53.2
65 years and over	1,083,000	127,000	22.2	5.2	11.7

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 50.

the population. Their number had increased by 5.5 million since 1950, when working couples numbered 8 million and represented 22 percent of all married couples. Before World War II their number and proportion were still smaller—in 1940 working couples numbered 3 million and their proportion of all couples was only 11 percent.

In 19 million husband-wife families the husbands were the only earners in March 1964. In 3.5 million such families the wives were not in the labor force, but other family members as well as the husbands were working. The labor force also included almost a million working wives whose husbands were not in the labor force, mainly because they were retired or disabled. In half a million families neither the husbands nor the wives worked, but other family members did, and in 3.5 million families no one worked.

21. Labor Force Participation of Wives by Income of Husband

The percentage of wives in the labor force in March 1964 was highest where the husbands' incomes were between $3,000 and $5,000 (39 percent) (table 13). The next highest was where the husbands' incomes were between $5,000 and $7,000 (38 percent).

Where the husbands' incomes were at the poverty level, the labor-force participation rate of wives varied from 31 percent where the husbands' incomes were between $1,000 and $2,000 to 36 percent where they were under $1,000. Where the husbands' incomes were just under the poverty line—$2,000 to $3,000—33 percent of the wives were in the labor force.

At the upper end of the income scale, only 25 percent of the wives whose husbands' incomes were $10,000 or more were in the labor force.

The labor-force participation rates of wives, therefore, are highest where the husbands' incomes do not represent poverty levels, but rather the lower range of middle-income levels. The rate then declines as the husbands' incomes reach higher levels.

Table 13.—Labor-Force Participation Rates of Wives (Husband Present), by Income of Husband in 1963 and Presence and Ages of Children, March 1964

(Women 14 years of age and over)

Income of husband	*Total*	*Presence and ages of children*		
		No children under 18	*Children 6–17 only*	*Children under 6* [1]
Total	34.4	37.8	43.0	22.7
Under $1,000	35.6	34.1	47.6	30.6
$1,000 to $1,999	31.2	28.6	48.9	28.9
$2,000 to $2,999	33.4	30.6	50.2	28.9
$3,000 to $4,999	39.1	41.5	50.2	28.9
$5,000 to $6,999	38.2	45.4	48.9	23.2
$7,000 to $9,999	31.2	43.0	38.5	15.0
$10,000 and over	24.8	34.1	25.5	13.4

[1] May also have older children, in addition to one or more under 6.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 50.

When a wife decides whether or not to seek paid employment, the presence of young children in the family seems a more important consideration than her husband's income. (For a detailed discussion of working mothers, see sections 25–35.) Among married women (husband present) the labor-force participation rate in March 1964 varied from 23 percent for those who had preschool children to 43 percent for those with school-age children only. On the other hand, wives (husband present) who had no children under 18 years of age had a relatively low labor-force participation rate of 38 percent. This is explained by the fact that this group includes many older women who are retired or unable to work.

A percent distribution of all working wives shows that in March 1964 more than half had husbands whose incomes were $5,000 or more (table 14). More working wives (about 28 percent) were found where the husbands' incomes were between $5,000 and $7,000 than at any other income level. At the extremes, 23 percent of working wives had husbands whose incomes were below $3,000; 8 percent, $10,000 or more.

Table 14.—Percent Distribution of Married Women (Husband Present) in the Labor Force, by Income of Husband in 1963, March 1964

(Women 14 years of age and over)

Income of husband	*Wives in the labor force*
Number	14,461,000
Percent	100.0
Under $1,000	5.9
$1,000 to $1,999	7.8
$2,000 to $2,999	9.0
$3,000 to $4,999	24.2
$5,000 to $6,999	28.5
$7,000 to $9,999	16.5
$10,000 and over	8.1

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 50.

22. Contribution of Wives to Family Income

A special study by the Bureau of Labor Statistics throws light on the contribution made to family income by married women who worked some time during 1963.[1] These statistics include women who worked full time the year round and also those who worked part time and part of the year.

They show that wives' earnings generally constituted a smaller proportion of family income in low-income families than in higher income families (table 15). For example, in almost three-fifths of the families with income below $2,000, but in only about one-fifth of the families with income between $10,000 and $15,000, the wives' earnings accounted for less than 10 percent of family income.

In families with incomes below $2,000, about half of the working wives contributed less than 5 percent to family income. In the income class $2,000 to $3,000, more than one-third of the wives who worked contributed less than 5 percent. In more than one-fourth of the families in this income class, the wives' earnings accounted for 10 to 30 percent of family income.

In higher income brackets wives generally contributed a greater share to family income. Wives' earnings accounted for 30 percent or more of the income in almost half of the families with incomes between $10,000 and $15,000. They accounted for 20 percent or more in over half of the families with incomes of $15,000 or more.

[1] Special Labor Force Report No. 50. Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor.

Table 15.—Percent of Family Income Accounted for by Wives' Earnings in 1963

Family income	Median percent of family income accounted for by wives' earnings	Percent distribution of wives by percent of family income accounted for by wives' earnings								
		Total	Less than 5.0	5.0 to 9.9	10.0 to 19.9	20.0 to 29.9	30.0 to 39.9	40.0 to 49.9	50.0 to 74.9	75.0 and over
Under $2,000	5.6	100.0	49.3	6.5	11.4	8.8	7.4	3.6	7.0	6.1
$2,000 to $2,999	14.4	100.0	35.0	9.0	13.7	13.7	5.3	7.7	5.9	9.9
$3,000 to $4,999	15.9	100.0	32.5	9.3	13.8	10.8	9.6	7.4	12.0	4.6
$5,000 to $6,999	16.8	100.0	29.4	10.4	15.1	11.0	10.9	10.0	10.2	2.9
$7,000 to $9,999	25.6	100.0	17.9	7.0	15.4	17.4	20.4	13.3	8.3	.3
$10,000 to $14,999	28.4	100.0	15.3	5.9	12.9	19.0	23.5	17.6	5.5	.3
$15,000 and over	21.9	100.0	23.3	5.4	16.9	24.0	17.4	8.9	3.9	.4
Median family income	------	$7,338	$5,960	$6,545	$7,433	$8,531	$8,840	$8,578	$6,507	$3,840

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 50.

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The median family income was highest ($8,840) in families where wives' earnings accounted for from 30 to 40 percent of family income. It was lowest ($3,840) in families where wives obviously were the principal earners, accounting for 75 percent or more of family income.

23. Job-Related Expenses of Working Wives

Working wives, and particularly working mothers, have many expenses related to their working that reduce the income available to them from their earnings. The principal costs involved are for clothing and personal care, food, transportation, child care and household help arrangements, and taxes. Studies reveal that these work-related expenses may absorb between one-fourth and one-half of a wife's earnings.[8] If she has children, her expenses vary according to their number and ages.

Working wives tend to spend more for clothing, beauty care, and other personal grooming needs than nonworking wives do. They may spend more for food because they tend to buy more of the time-saving "convenience foods" and to eat more meals in public eating places. They have transportation expenses to and from work. Working mothers, in addition, may have considerable expenses for day care for their children. This may involve private or public day care centers or babysitters. Working wives and mothers often pay for household help such as maids or cleaning women, and they may increase their expenses by sending their household laundry to commercial establishments.

There are other job-related expenses, such as purchased lunches, required uniforms, dues for professional organizations or union membership, professional publications, or even continued education—depending on the requirements of the job. Federal and State income taxes and social security taxes must be paid. In addition, the earnings of the wife often place total family income in a higher income tax bracket.

On the other hand, there are benefits from working outside the home, in addition to the obvious one of increased family income. A few are tangible; most are intangible but personally significant. Among the measurable benefits may be employee pension plans, health insurance

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[8] "The Working Wife and Her Family's Economic Position," *In* Monthly Labor Review, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, April 1962, and "Marital and Family Characteristics of Workers," *Ibid.*, January 1962. Ann H. Candle, "Financial and Management Practices of Employed and Nonemployed Wives," *In* Journal of Home Economics, December 1964. See also Special Labor Force Report No. 40, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor.

benefits, paid sick leave and vacations, profit-sharing plans, and discount privileges, as well as social security benefits and retirement income above those the nonworking wife can count on. Often the intangible benefits are equally or more important to the working wife. These include the opportunity to widen her horizons and the benefit of being able to develop new skills and discover new aptitudes. Many working wives feel that they become more effective members of their own families and contribute more to their community and to society in general by combining paid employment with homemaking.

24. Occupations of Husbands and Wives

A comparison of the occupations held by husbands and wives in March 1964 indicated that less than one-fourth of working couples pursued similar lines of work.

The highest correlation between the husband's and the wife's jobs existed among clerical workers (44.1 percent); however, it was apparent that within this major occupational group many husbands and wives did not do the same work (table 16). Over two-fifths (42.3 percent) of the wives of professional and technical workers were in the same major occupational group as their husbands. Correlation between farm jobs was also relatively high (41.0 percent)—not surprising since most farm wives have few job opportunities other than farmwork.

Two-fifths of the wives of service workers had service jobs, and approximately three-tenths of the wives who were operatives had husbands in these occupations; about one-seventh of the wives in managerial and almost one-sixth of those in sales work had husbands in the same occupations.

Table 16.—Occupations of Wives, by Occupation of Husband, March 1964

Occupation of wife	Occupation of husband: Total	Professional, technical, kindred workers	Managers, officials, proprietors (except farm)	Clerical, kindred workers	Sales workers	Craftsmen, foremen, kindred workers	Operatives, kindred workers	All service workers	Farm workers	Nonfarm laborers
Number (in thousands)	12,017	1,368	2,036	923	621	2,441	2,443	921	642	622
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Professional, technical, kindred workers	13.5	42.3	13.8	12.6	18.0	9.1	5.7	8.2	12.8	3.0
Medical and other health workers	3.0	6.1	2.8	2.6	4.8	3.1	2.1	2.9	1.9	.6
Teachers (except college)	6.7	22.0	7.0	5.7	9.2	3.8	2.0	4.1	9.0	1.6
Other professional workers	3.8	14.2	4.0	4.3	4.0	2.2	1.6	1.2	1.9	.8
Managers, officials, proprietors (except farm)	5.5	5.0	13.7	5.3	4.3	4.1	3.2	3.3	2.2	3.3
Salaried	3.3	4.0	6.6	3.8	2.4	2.7	2.2	2.6	1.1	1.9
Self-employed	2.2	1.0	7.1	1.5	1.9	1.4	1.0	.7	1.1	1.4
Clerical, kindred workers	31.1	35.4	39.2	44.1	41.9	31.2	26.2	22.2	9.5	18.0

Stenographers, typists, secretaries	10.4	14.8	13.0	16.7	15.3	10.0	7.4	6.3	2.3	5.1
Other clerical workers	20.7	20.6	26.2	27.4	26.6	21.2	18.8	15.9	7.2	12.9
Sales workers	8.1	5.5	12.8	6.8	16.3	9.5	6.4	4.3	3.0	4.3
Craftsmen, foremen, kindred workers	1.1	.4	1.1	1.3	1.3	1.8	1.2	.9	------	.6
Operatives, kindred workers	17.1	5.4	7.9	12.9	6.0	22.0	29.8	19.7	12.0	22.9
Service workers (except private-household)	15.4	5.1	9.8	14.4	8.2	17.0	19.2	29.7	10.7	25.9
Waitresses, cooks, bartenders	5.4	1.4	3.8	4.9	3.4	5.4	7.6	9.0	4.2	8.5
Other service workers	10.0	3.7	6.0	9.5	4.8	11.6	11.6	20.7	6.5	17.4
Private-household workers	5.1	.3	1.2	2.3	3.1	4.2	6.9	11.1	8.6	18.4
Farm workers	2.8	.5	.1	--------	.6	.9	.8	.4	41.0	1.3
Nonfarm laborers	.4	--------	.3	.2	.3	.3	.6	.2	.3	2.2

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 50.

Working Mothers [9]

25. Number and Proportions of Working Mothers

Working mothers with children under 18 years of age numbered 9.5 million in March 1964 (table 17). They represented 35 percent of all such mothers in the population and 38 percent of all women workers. Nonwhite working mothers (husband present) with children of these ages numbered 923,000 and represented 12 percent of all working mothers (husband present).

Working mothers as a group are not as young as might be expected. Their median age in March 1964 was 38 years—only 3 years less than the median age for all women workers.

26. Labor Force Participation of Mothers

The presence or absence of a husband has a strong influence on a mother's decision to work. Thus in March 1964 the proportion in the labor force of mothers whose husbands were present was only 32 percent compared with 56 percent for other mothers.

Working mothers with husband present numbered 7.9 million in 1964 and represented 83 percent of all working mothers. Of these mothers, more than 3 out of 10 (32.0 percent) were in the labor force. In contrast, of the mothers not living with their husbands—the widowed, divorced, separated, or deserted, who were rearing children in fatherless homes—almost 6 out of 10 (56.2 percent) were in the labor force. These mothers have, of course, a compelling need for earnings: probably two-thirds of them are rearing children in poverty.[10]

27. Trends in Labor Force Participation of Mothers

Between 1940 and 1964 the labor-force participation rate of mothers increased about three times more than did the labor-force participation rate of all woman (table 18). In 1940 only 9 percent of all mothers with children under 18 years of age worked outside the home, but by 1964 this proportion had increased to 35 percent. The corresponding rise in the proportion of all women in the labor force was much smaller—from 28 percent in 1940 to 37 percent in 1964.

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[9] The term "working mothers," as used in this bulletin, refers to workers who have children under 18 years of age, unless otherwise designated.

[10] Mollie Orshansky, "Counting the Poor: Another Look at the Poverty Profile." *In* Social Security Bulletin, Social Security Administration, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, January 1965.

Table 17.—Mothers in the Population and Labor Force, by Marital Status and Ages of Children, March 1964

(Mothers 14 years of age and over)

Marital status and ages of children	Number		Percent distribution		Percent in labor force
	Population	Labor force	Population	Labor force	
Mothers with children under 18 years	27,609,000	9,527,000	100.0	100.0	34.5
Married, husband present	24,741,000	7,916,000	89.6	83.1	32.0
Other women ever married [1]	2,868,000	1,611,000	10.4	16.9	56.2
Mothers with children 6 to 17 (none under 6)	12,952,000	5,934,000	46.9	62.3	45.8
Married, husband present	11,316,000	4,866,000	41.0	51.1	43.0
Other women ever married [1]	1,636,000	1,068,000	5.9	11.2	65.3
Mothers with children 3 to 5 (none under 3) [2]	5,291,000	1,550,000	19.2	16.3	29.3
Married, husband present	4,792,000	1,279,000	17.4	13.4	26.7
Other women ever married [1]	499,000	271,000	1.8	2.8	54.3
Mothers with children under 3 years [2]	9,366,000	2,043,000	33.9	21.4	21.8
Married, husband present	8,633,000	1,771,000	31.3	18.6	20.5
Other women ever married [1]	733,000	272,000	2.7	2.9	37.1

[1] Refers to women who are widowed, divorced, or separated or whose husbands are absent for other reasons.

[2] May also have older children, in addition to one or more under 6.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 50.

Table 18.—Labor-Force Participation Rates of Mothers and of All Women, Selected Years, 1940–64
(Women 14 years of age and over)

Year	Mothers[1]	All women[2]
1964	34.5	37.4
1960	30.4	36.7
1958	29.5	36.0
1956	27.5	35.9
1954	25.6	33.7
1952	23.8	33.9
1950	21.6	33.1
1948	20.2	31.9
1946	18.2	31.2
1940	8.6	28.2

[1] Data are for March of each year except 1946, 1948, 1952, and 1954, when they are for April.
[2] Annual averages.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics; U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

Since 1946 the percentage of working mothers with children under 18 years has steadily increased at a rate of about 1 percent a year (chart H). The percentage with children under 6 years of age rose somewhat less between 1946 (the first year for which these data are available) and 1960, but since then has kept pace with that of all working mothers. Between 1960 and 1964 both percentages rose by almost 5 percentage points, so that by 1964, 35 percent of the mothers with children under 18 years of age and 25 percent of those with preschool children were in the labor force.

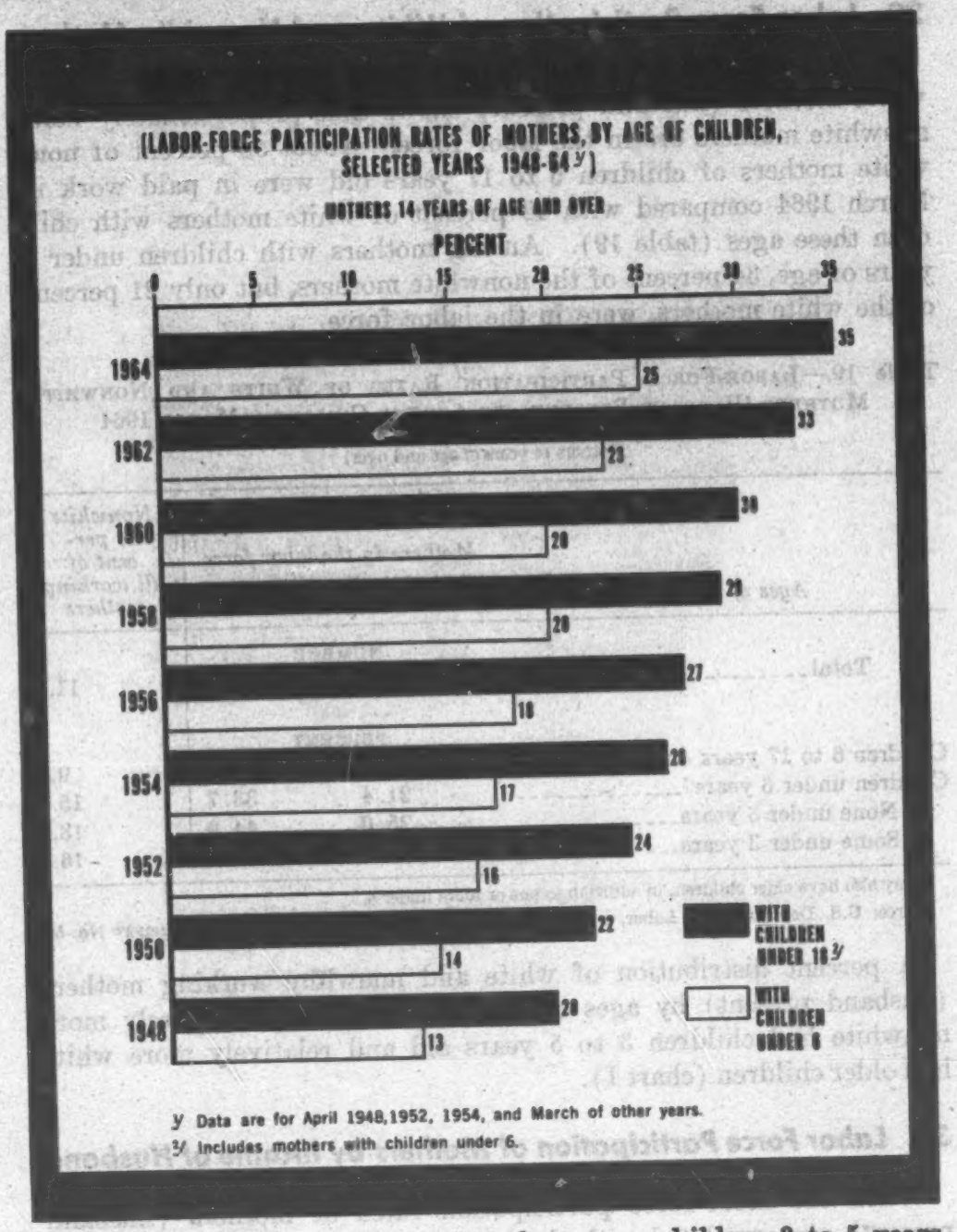
28. Children of Working Mothers

Working mothers had an estimated 15 million children under 18 years of age, with 4 million under 6 years old and 5 million between the ages of 6 and 11 years.[11]

Because more mothers tend to be in paid work if their children are of school age and if there is no father in the home, the highest labor-force participation rate in March 1964 was among those not living with their husbands and with school-age children only (table 17). The lowest rate, on the other hand, was among mothers with husband present and with children under 3 years of age.

In families in which the fathers were at home and all the children were over 6 years old, 43 percent of the mothers worked. If in families

[11] Children's Bureau, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.



y Data are for April 1948,1952, 1954, and March of other years.

3/ Includes mothers with children under 6.

in which the fathers were at home there were children 3 to 5 years old, 27 percent of the mothers worked; and if there were still younger children, only 21 percent of the mothers worked.

In fatherless homes, on the other hand, much higher proportions of mothers worked, reflecting their greater financial need—65 percent of the mothers with school-age children only and 54 percent of the mothers with children 3 to 5 years old were in the labor force. Even if they had children under 3 years of age, 37 percent of these mothers worked.

29. Labor Force Participation of White and Nonwhite Mothers

A comparison of the labor force participation of nonwhite with white mothers (husband present) shows that proportionately more nonwhite mothers are in the labor force. About 58 percent of nonwhite mothers of children 6 to 17 years old were in paid work in March 1964 compared with 42 percent of white mothers with children these ages (table 19). Among mothers with children under 6 years of age, 34 percent of the nonwhite mothers, but only 21 percent of the white mothers, were in the labor force.

Table 19.—Labor-Force Participation Rates of White and Nonwhite Mothers (Husband Present), by Ages of Children, March 1964

(Mothers 14 years of age and over)

Ages of children	Mothers in the labor force		Nonwhite as percent of all working mothers
	White	Nonwhite	
	NUMBER		
Total	6,987,000	923,000	11.7
	PERCENT		
Children 6 to 17 years only	41.9	57.7	9.4
Children under 6 years [1]	21.4	33.7	15.4
None under 3 years	25.0	44.6	13.8
Some under 3 years	19.3	29.3	16.5

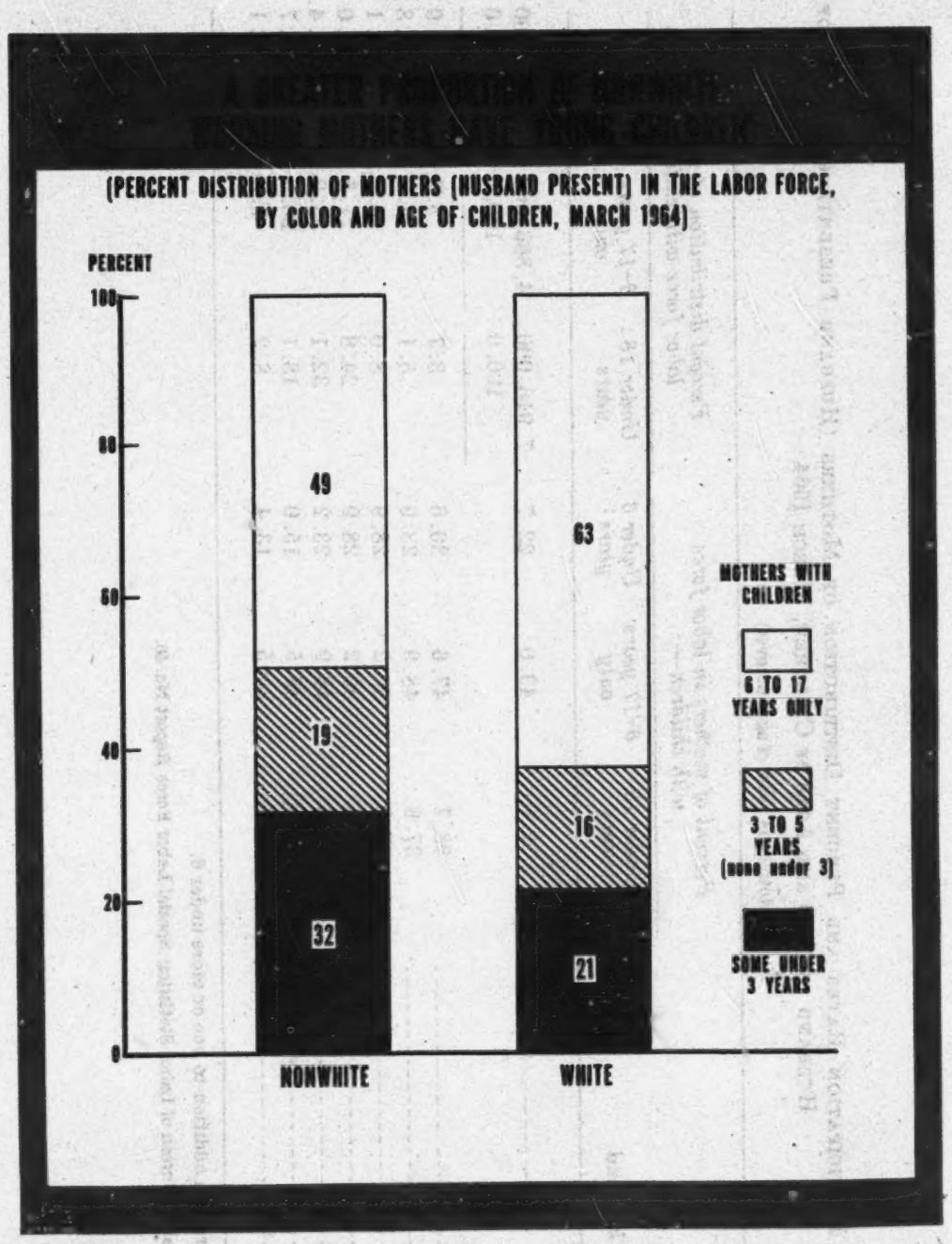
[1] May also have older children, in addition to one or more under 6.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 50.

A percent distribution of white and nonwhite working mothers (husband present) by ages of children shows that relatively more nonwhite had children 3 to 5 years old and relatively more white had older children (chart I).

30. Labor Force Participation of Mothers by Income of Husband

When the labor-force participation rates of mothers (husband present) are correlated with the income received by their husbands, it is apparent that mothers work primarily because of economic need. Among mothers with husband present, the largest proportion (39 percent) was in the labor force in March 1964 when the husbands' incomes were below $1,000 a year (table 20). As the husbands' incomes increase, the percentage of mothers in the labor force generally declines.



Irrespective of her husband's income, a mother with younger children is obviously less willing or able to work than one with older children. At all income levels of husbands, a smaller proportion of mothers worked in March 1964 if their children were not yet in school (chart J).

For example, as is apparent from table 21, 37 percent of the mothers worked if their husbands' incomes were between $2,000 and $3,000,

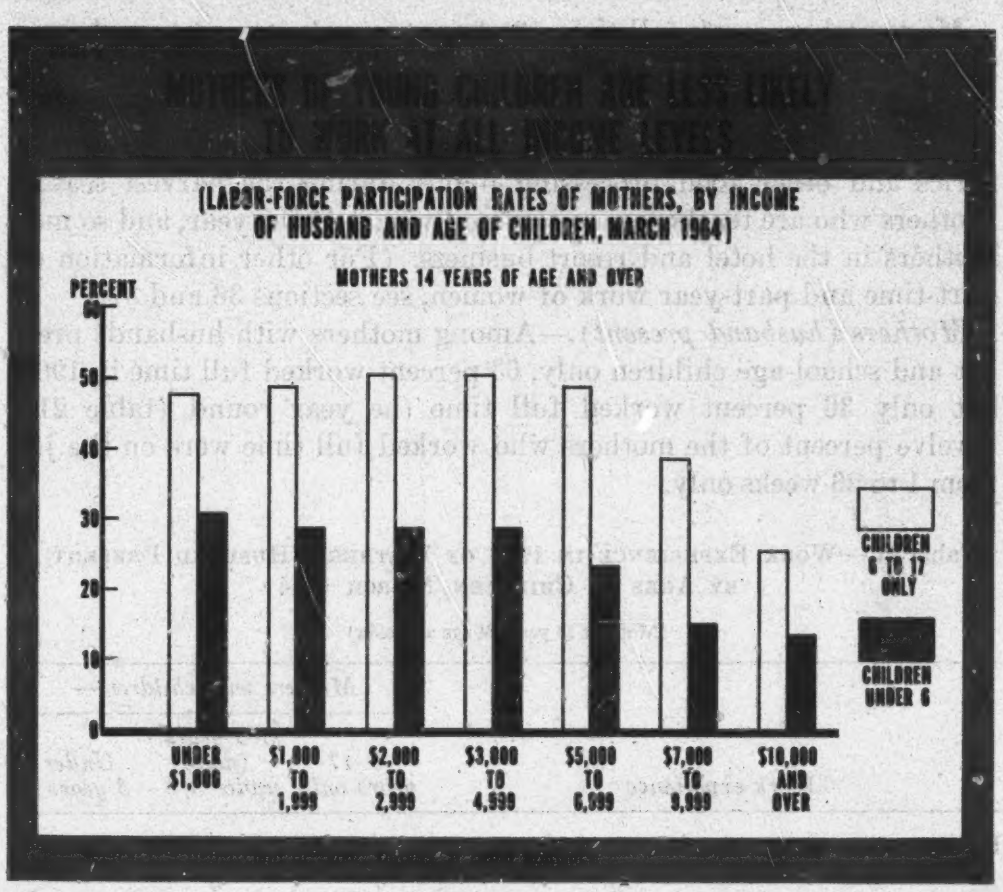
Table 20.—Labor-Force Participation Rates and Percent Distribution of Mothers (Husband Present), by Income of Husband in 1963 and Ages of Children, March 1964

(Mothers 14 years of age and over)

Income of husband	Percent of mothers in labor force with children—			Percent distribution of mothers in labor force with children—		
	Under 18 years	6–17 years only	Under 6 years [1]	Under 18 years	6–17 years only	Under 6 years [1]
Total	32.0	43.0	22.7	7,916,000 100.0	4,866,000 100.0	3,050,000 100.0
Under $1,000	38.7	47.6	30.6	3.7	3.5	3.9
$1,000 to $1,999	37.6	48.9	28.9	5.1	4.7	5.8
$2,000 to $2,999	37.0	50.2	28.9	8.0	6.7	10.1
$3,000 to $4,999	37.4	50.2	28.9	24.8	21.5	30.0
$5,000 to $6,999	34.8	48.9	23.2	32.1	33.2	30.4
$7,000 to $9,999	26.4	38.5	15.0	18.1	20.8	13.7
$10,000 and over	20.3	25.5	13.4	8.2	9.6	6.1

[1] May also have older children, in addition to one or more under 6.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 50.



but this proportion rose to 50 percent for those with school-age children only, and it dropped to 29 percent for those with children under 6 years of age. Similarly, in families where the husbands' incomes were between $5,000 and $7,000, 35 percent of all the mothers were in the labor force, but only 23 percent worked if they had preschool children. At yet higher income levels (between $7,000 and $10,000), 26 percent of the mothers were in the labor force, but only 15 percent worked if they had young children.

31. Part-Time and Part-Year Work Patterns of Mothers

Mothers are likely to work part time (less than 35 hours a week) or part of the year (less than 50 weeks of the year) or both. Mothers with husbands present and mothers of very young children, in particular, tend to prefer part-time and part-year work. Many mothers who can work only part of the time must make a special effort to find a job with a work schedule flexible enough so that they can combine working outside the home with care of their children.

Most mothers work full time (35 hours a week or more) work only part of the year. Many mothers may take full-time seasonal jobs during periods of peak business, such as are available in retail trade during the Christmas season, in laundries during the summer, or in canneries and other food processing plants during the harvest season. Mothers who are teachers may work only part of the year, and so may mothers in the hotel and resort business. (For other information on part-time and part-year work of women, see sections 36 and 37.)

Mothers (husband present).—Among mothers with husbands present and school-age children only, 63 percent worked full time in 1963, but only 36 percent worked full time the year round (table 21). Twelve percent of the mothers who worked full time were on the job from 1 to 26 weeks only.

Table 21.—Work Experience in 1963 of Mothers (Husband Present), by Ages of Children, March 1964

(Mothers 14 years of age and over)

Work experience	Mothers with children— 6–17 years only	3–5 years (none under 3) [1]	Under 3 years [1]
Percent with work experience [2]	51.9	38.1	35.6
PERCENT DISTRIBUTION			
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Full time [3]	62.5	60.5	64.6
50 to 52 weeks	35.7	24.5	13.8
27 to 49 weeks	14.7	14.2	19.1
1 to 26 weeks	12.1	21.8	31.7
Part time [4]	37.5	39.5	35.4
27 weeks or more	23.3	20.0	14.3
1 to 26 weeks	14.1	19.5	21.2

[1] May also have older children, in addition to one or more under 6.
[2] Refers to civilian noninstitutional population.
[3] Worked 35 hours or more a week.
[4] Worked less than 35 hours a week.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 50.

Mothers (husband present) who had preschool children were even less inclined to work full time or the year round. Sixty-one percent of the mothers with 3- to 5-year-old children and none younger worked

full time, but only 25 percent worked full time the year round and 22 percent worked from 1 to 26 weeks.

A higher proportion of mothers with children under 3 years was on full-time schedules than of mothers who had school-age children only or children 3 to 5 years old but none younger. Sixty-five percent of the mothers with children under 3 years worked full time, but only 14 percent worked full time the year round and 32 percent worked from 1 to 26 weeks.

The proportion of mothers (husband present) who worked part time was highest (40 percent) for those who had children 3 to 5 years old but none younger and lowest (35 percent) for those who had children under 3.

Mothers (husband absent).—Typically, a mother who is raising children without the help of a husband is more likely to work full time than is the mother whose husband is at home. Economic necessity is obviously the main reason for the former's work pattern.

Eighty-three percent of all mothers (husband absent) who were employed in nonagricultural industries in March 1964 were on full-time schedules (table 22).

White and nonwhite mothers.—Data on work experience of mothers by color, marital status, and ages of children are available for 1959 from the 1960 Census of Population.

These data indicate that relatively more nonwhite than white mothers worked part time, but the differences were not significant for mothers whose husbands were present. Among mothers whose husbands were absent, however, much larger proportions of nonwhite mothers than of white mothers worked part time.

A comparison, by detailed marital status, of the number of weeks worked in 1959 by 14- to 59-year-old white and nonwhite mothers generally confirms the work patterns shown for all mothers. Whether white or nonwhite, a smaller proportion of mothers than of all women workers worked the year round, and mothers whose husbands were present worked fewer weeks in the year than did widowed or divorced mothers or mothers whose husbands were absent for other reasons. Moreover, mothers of preschool children worked fewer weeks in the year than did mothers of school-age children, whether white or nonwhite.

About 2 out of 5 of both white and nonwhite working mothers of school-age children, if living with their husbands, worked the year round. But if their husbands were absent, one-half of them worked that much. Among widowed and divorced mothers with school-age children, relatively more white mothers than nonwhite mothers worked the year round.

Table 22.—Full-Time and Part-Time Work Status of Mothers Employed in Nonagricultural Industries, by Marital Status and Ages of Children, March 1964

(Mothers 14 years of age and over)

Marital status and ages of children	Number (in thousands)	Percent distribution		
		Total	Full time [1]	Part time [2]
Mothers with children under 18 years	8,587	100.0	72.1	27.9
Married (husband present)	7,150	100.0	69.8	30.2
Other women ever married [3]	1,437	100.0	83.2	16.8
Mothers with children 6 to 17 only	5,475	100.0	73.1	26.9
Married (husband present)	4,485	100.0	70.7	29.3
Other women ever married [3]	990	100.0	83.7	16.3
Mothers with children 3 to 5 years (none under 3) [4]	1,348	100.0	73.0	27.0
Married (husband present)	1,124	100.0	70.6	29.4
Other women ever married [3]	224	100.0	85.7	14.3
Mothers with children under 3 [4]	1,764	100.0	68.1	31.9
Married (husband present)	1,541	100.0	66.6	33.4
Other women ever married [3]	223	100.0	78.5	21.5

[1] Worked 35 hours or more a week.
[2] Worked to 1 to 34 hours a week.
[3] Refers to women who are widowed, divorced, or separated or whose husbands are absent for other reasons.
[4] May also have older children, in addition to one or more under 6.
Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 50.

Whether the husbands of working mothers with preschool children were present or absent, a higher proportion of nonwhite than of white mothers worked the year round. Among widowed or divorced mothers with young children, the reverse was true: the proportion was slightly higher for white mothers.

Fifty-two percent of the white mothers (husband present) with preschool children, but only 47 percent of the nonwhite mothers, worked 26 weeks or less in the year.

32. Education of Working Mothers

Working mothers with preschool children only were generally high school graduates or had at least from 1 to 3 years of high school in 1960.[12] Three-fifths of the mothers had some high school but no col-

[12] This analysis is based on the 1960 Census of Population and is concerned only with mothers 25 years of age and older who had children under 6 years of age.

lege. Less than one-fifth had from 1 to 4 years of college. At the extremes, about 3 percent of the mothers had less than 5 years of schooling and about 2 percent had 5 years or more of college.

Working mothers living with their husbands generally had more education than did mothers whose husbands were absent. At least 1 out of 5 mothers (husband present) had some college compared with 1 out of 8 mothers (husband absent).

A comparison by educational levels of the labor-force participation rates of mothers with children under 6 years of age and those of all women in 1960 confirms that mothers of preschool children generally prefer to stay home with them. On the other hand, it also shows that highly educated mothers, even if they have young children, tend to be more motivated to work outside the home than are mothers with less schooling.

At each educational attainment level of elementary school, high school, or 4 years of college or less, about 1 out of 5 mothers was in the labor force. This proportion dropped to less than 1 out of 6 among mothers who had no schooling. Conversely, at the highest level of educational attainment—5 years or more of college—1 out of 3 mothers was in the labor force. This represents the highest labor-force participation rate of mothers with preschool children and is considerably above the average (about 1 out of 5) for all mothers with preschool children. It is also significant that a higher percentage of the mothers in the labor force than of the mothers who were not working had done graduate work or had earned advanced degrees (5 years or more of college). As shown in section 87, women trained for the professions characteristically make use of their skills.

33. *Occupations of Working Mothers*

Working mothers 14 years of age and over are concentrated in the same occupational groups as are all women workers generally.[13] (See chapter 2 on occupations of women workers.) Of the mothers (husband present) employed in 1960, close to 3 out of 10 were clerical workers (mainly secretaries), 1 out of 10 was an operative (mainly in factories), and 2 out of 10 were service workers. In addition, about 1 out of 10 was a sales worker, and 1 out of 8 was a professional or technical worker.

Working mothers not living with their husbands were found in relatively greater numbers in the less skilled occupations, such as

[13] This discussion is based on the 1960 Census of Population and is concerned with employed mothers with own children under 18 years of age.

private-household worker, operative, or service worker other than in private households.

Nonwhite mothers who had jobs in 1960 were also mainly in less skilled occupations. Almost two-thirds of those living with their husbands were operatives, service workers (outside private households), and private-household workers. One out of 10 was a clerical worker, and about 1 out of 10 was a professional worker. Nonwhite mothers without husbands in the home predominantly had low-skilled jobs. More than 1 out of 3 was a private-household worker, 1 out of 4 was a service worker (outside private households), and 1 out of 8 was an operative.

34. Child Care Arrangements of Working Mothers

The arrangements working mothers make for the care of their children are of vital importance to the welfare of their families and to the interests of their communities. To obtain current information, the Children's Bureau of the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare and the Women's Bureau of the U.S. Department of Labor cosponsored a national survey of child care arrangements of working mothers.[14] The survey was limited to women who worked 27 weeks or more in 1964, either full or part time, and who had at least one child under 14 years of age living at home. It was conducted by the Bureau of the Census in February 1965.

According to the preliminary findings, the 6.1 million mothers covered by the survey had 12.3 million children under 14 years of age, of whom 3.8 million were under 6 years.

While these mothers were at work, 46 percent of the children were cared for in their own homes, with 15 percent looked after by their father, 21 percent by another relative, and 10 percent by a maid, housekeeper, or babysitter (table 23).

An additional 15 percent of the children were cared for outside their own home, about half by a relative. Thirteen percent of the children were looked after by their own mothers while they worked, and 15 percent had mothers who worked only during school hours. Eight percent of the children were expected to care for themselves, while only 2 percent of the surveyed children were in group care, such as in day care centers, nursery schools, and after-school centers.

These preliminary findings, as did the findings of a survey undertaken by the Children's Bureau in 1958, emphasize the urgent need

[14] This survey was partially supported under the research program of the Office of Manpower, Automation and Training, Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor.

Table 23.—Child Care Arrangements of Working Mothers[1] With Children Under 14 Years of Age, by Ages of Children, February 1965
(Percent distribution)

Type of arrangement	Total	Ages of children: Under 6 years	6 to 11 years	12 or 13 years
Number (in thousands)	12,291	3,778	6,100	2,413
Percent	100	100	100	100
Care in child's own home by—	46	47	47	38
Father	15	15	15	14
Other relative	21	18	23	21
Under 16 years	5	2	6	5
16 to 64 years	13	13	13	13
65 years and over	4	3	4	3
Nonrelative who only looked after children	5	8	4	2
Nonrelative who did additional household chores (maid, housekeeper, etc.)	5	7	4	2
Care in someone else's home by—	15	30	11	5
Relative	8	15	5	3
Nonrelative	8	15	6	2
Other arrangements	39	23	43	57
Group care (day care center, etc.)	2	6	1	(2)
Child looked after self	8	1	8	20
Mother looked after child while working	13	15	12	11
Mother worked only during child's school hours	15	1	21	24
Other arrangements	1	1	1	1

[1] Refers to mothers who worked 27 weeks or more in 1964 either full or part time.
[2] Less than 0.5 percent.

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Welfare Administration, Children's Bureau, and U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau: "Child Care Arrangements of the Nation's Working Mothers—A preliminary report." 1965.

for additional day care facilities. Licensed public and private day care facilities available in October 1965 could provide for about 290,000 children. This represented, unfortunately, only a small percentage of the children who needed day care services, but public and voluntary agencies are working actively to close the gap.

A major advance in providing day care services was made possible by the child welfare provisions of the 1962 Public Welfare

Amendments to the Social Security Act, which authorized Federal grants-in-aid to State public welfare agencies for day care services. To qualify for Federal aid, a State must have an approved child welfare services plan requiring, among other things, that day care will be provided only in facilities (including private homes) which are licensed by the State or meet the standards of the State licensing authority and that priority will be given to children from low-income homes.

Since the adoption of these amendments, the States have been moving forward rapidly to provide adequate day care services for children who need them. As of June 1965, 47 States and 3 jurisdictions had federally approved plans for day care services.[15]

In addition to Federal grants for day care programs under the 1962 Public Welfare Amendments, financial assistance for such programs is now available under the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964. Under this act, community action programs are encouraged to develop day care centers and nursery centers for young children. (Other provisions and regulations under the act, such as those relating to migrant workers, also encourage the development of day care programs for special groups.)

Federal and State tax treatment regarding child care expenses.—Since its adoption in 1913, the Federal income tax law has made an allowance for the circumstances of the individual taxpayer through personal exemptions. In the Revenue Act of 1954 a deduction was allowed for child care expenses incurred by working women and widowers[16] if such child care enabled them to be gainfully employed. Under that act an allowance of up to $600 was permitted for care of a child under 12 years of age or a dependent physically or mentally incapable of caring for himself. Widows, widowers, and separated and divorced persons could deduct the full amount regardless of income. However, a married woman claiming the deduction was required to file a joint return with her husband, and if the combined adjusted gross income exceeded $4,500 the deduction was reduced $1 for each dollar above that amount. These restrictions regarding the working wife did not apply if her husband was incapable of self-support because of mental or physical disability.

A 1963 amendment provided for allowing the deduction for child care expenses to a deserted wife who could not locate her husband.

The President's Commission on the Status of Women recommended that tax deductions for child care expenses of working mothers should

[15] Idaho, Nevada, New Hampshire, and Guam did not have such plans.
[16] The term "widower" includes divorced and legally separated men.

be kept commensurate with the median income of couples when both are engaged in substantial employment; that the limitation on joint income should be raised; that additional deductions, of lesser amounts, should be allowed for children beyond the first; and that the age limit for child care deductions should be raised.

The Revenue Act of 1964 increased the maximum deductible allowance to $900 for two or more children or dependents and raised to $6,000 the income limitation that applies to married women. The act allows a married man to deduct the cost of child care if his wife is in an institution for at least 90 consecutive days or for a shorter period if terminated by her death. A married man whose wife is at home but unable to care for herself is eligible for the deduction, subject to the $6,000 income limitation applicable to married women. The act also raised the age of children covered by the deduction to include those under 13 years.

In addition to Federal laws governing deductions for child care expenses, a number of States permit employed taxpayers to take such deductions from State income taxes. Some of the State laws are identical to the Federal law; others have variations as to who can claim the deduction, the amount of the deduction, the age limit of children for whose care the deduction can be claimed, and the income limitation of taxpayers eligible to claim the deduction.

35. Maternity Benefits

Large numbers of women workers in this country, as well as wives of men workers, are eligible to receive maternity benefits. These benefits are provided generally through voluntary health and insurance plans or by legislative action. Voluntary health plans include those negotiated between unions and management, those offered by commercial insurance companies, those operated by associations of hospitals or physicians, and those operated cooperatively by groups. The principal types of maternity benefits available to women workers through voluntary plans are maternity leave and provisions for job security, allowances for medical care or direct medical services, and cash payments to compensate for loss of wages. The cost of these benefits may be paid entirely by the employer, shared by the employer and employee, or—least frequently—paid entirely by the employee.

In 1962 the Bureau of Labor Statistics summarized 100 selected health and insurance plans,[17] all of which had maternity provisions.

[17] "Digest of One Hundred Selected Health and Insurance Plans Under Collective Bargaining, Winter 1961–62." Bull. No. 1330. Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor. June 1962.

Some of these applied only to women employees; others, to dependent wives of men workers; and still others, to both. There was a wide variation in allowances for maternity hospitalization and for surgical and medical care; for example, the surgical allowance ranged from $35 to $150. Many plans provided for the full cost of specified services in addition to hospital room and board allowances.

In more than half of these plans the company paid the full costs of maternity benefits for both employees and dependents of employees. In more than two-fifths the employer and employee shared the costs in various ways; for example, when costs of the employee's benefits were paid by both the employee and employer, costs of the dependent's benefits were paid by the employer under some plans and by the employee under others.

Women workers in the railroad industry are entitled to maternity benefits under a Federal law. Cash sickness benefits for maternity leave also are provided to women workers under laws of New Jersey, Rhode Island, and Puerto Rico. Six other States and Puerto Rico prohibit employment for specified periods before and/or after childbirth.

Many State and local governments allow women employees tc use their sick leave as maternity leave, and some also provide insured medical care. In 1962, 14 States and Puerto Rico [18] offered health benefit programs with maternity provisions to employees of these jurisdictions who wished to participate. In 2 of these—New York and Massachusetts—local governments were authorized to participate voluntarily in the program. Under all these programs enrolled employees and the jurisdiction contributed toward the plans. A few of the plans were designed to cover the entire cost of combined hospital and physician's charges for a confinement. Five plans had lower benefits for dependent wives than for female employees. Differences in allowances ranged from separate allowances for hospital charges and physician's fees to a combined lump sum allowance toward both kinds of charges.

Though Federal law does not refer to maternity leave as such for Government civilian employees, Public Law 233 (1951) does make paid sick leave available to them, and a Civil Service Commission regulation permits sick leave to be used as maternity leave. In addition, under the Federal Employees Health Benefit Act of 1959, Government employees may elect to participate in one of several health insurance plans that include maternity medical care for women em-

[18] "State Employees' Health Benefit Programs," Health Economics Series No. 2, Public Health Service, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, December 1963, and "Maternity Care Utilization and Financing," *Ibid.*, No. 4, January 1964.

ployees as well as for wives of male employees. Both the Government and the employee contribute to the cost of such plans.

Wives of servicemen are eligible for maternity care at Government expense. Although women members of the Armed Forces who become pregnant are separated from the service, they are eligible for Government-paid maternity care.

Working Life of Women

36. *Work Experience of Women*

The number of women and men in the labor force is obtained by a regular monthly survey of the population.[19] A similar survey, conducted once a year, yields the number of women and men who worked at some time during the previous year.

The number of persons who work some time during the course of a year is naturally greater than the average (mean) number in the labor force in that year. In 1964, 33.1 million women had some work experience, but the average number in the labor force was 25.8 million—a difference of 7.3 million.

Many women cannot work full time (35 hours or more a week) the year round (50 to 52 weeks) because of home responsibilities, school attendance, or other reasons. In addition, there are women who would like to work throughout the year but are unable to find this type of job due to lack of skills or education or because such jobs are not available in the community in which they live. As a result, women are more likely than are men to work part time or part year. Only 37 percent of the women who worked at some time in 1964 were employed full time the year round (chart K). In contrast, 66 percent of all men with work experience in 1964 were full-time year-round workers. Another 9 percent of the women with work experience worked throughout the year on a part-time basis. Thirty-two percent of the women with work experience, but only 13 percent of the men, had part-time jobs.

The percentage working part time increases as the number of weeks worked declines. Thus in 1964, 20 percent of the women who worked 50 to 52 weeks and about 30 percent of those who worked from 27 to 49 weeks were employed part time, but about 50 percent of those who worked half a year or less had part-time jobs.

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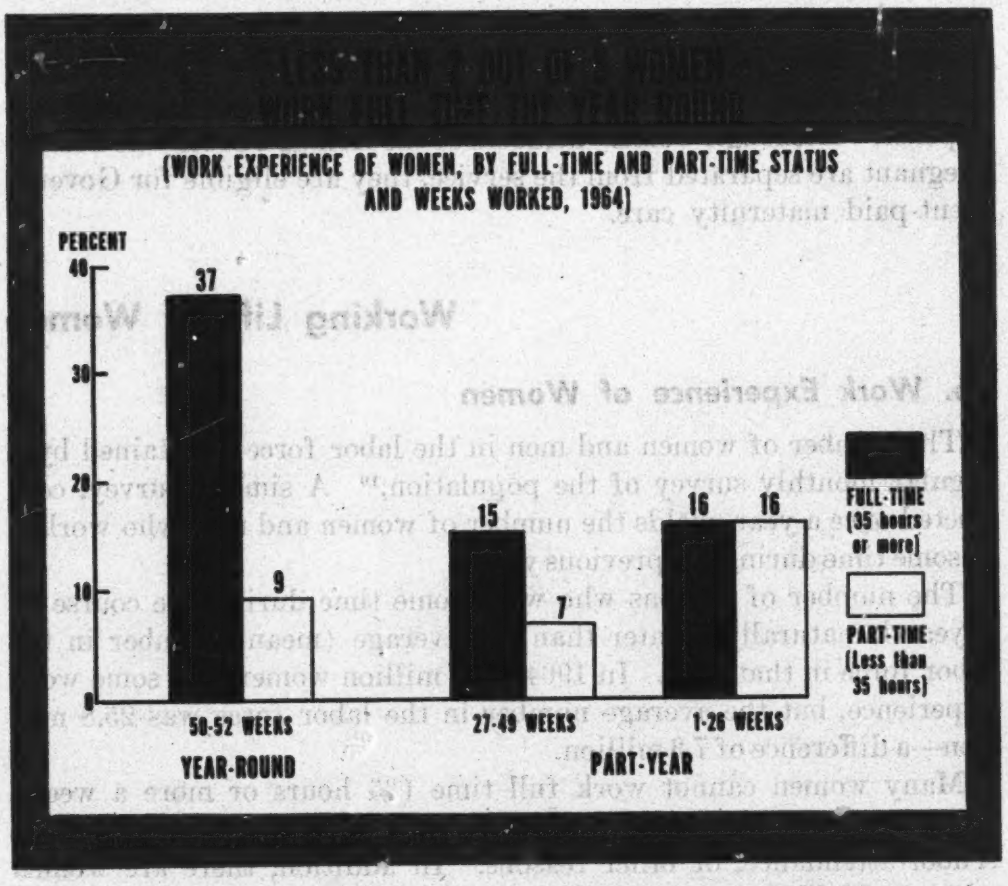
[19] The survey is conducted for the Bureau of Labor Statistics by the Bureau of the Census through its current population survey. It consists of interviewing a scientifically selected sample of about 35,000 households, designed to represent the civilian noninstitutional population 14 years of age and over.



Reasons given for part-year work.—The major reasons given by women and men for working only part of the year in 1964 differed considerably. About half of the women stated that taking care of their homes was the principal reason; another 20 percent said attendance at school limited their work. Only 15 percent claimed unemployment as the reason for working less than a full year. In contrast, half the men 25 years of age or over mentioned unemployment as the major reason for part-year work. Among men under 25 years of age, however, about two-thirds reported school attendance as the principal reason, and less than one-fourth claimed unemployment.

Changes in work experience of women since 1950.—The number of women with work experience rose 9.8 million from 1950 to 1964 (table 24). The number who worked part time rose 4.4 million. This increase of 71 percent was considerably greater than the increase of 31 percent registered by women full-time workers. Most of the increase in part-time workers, however, came between 1950 and 1960. From 1960 to 1964 the number of women part-time workers increased by only 7 percent compared with an increase of 9 percent among full-time workers.

Another change in the composition of the group of women with work experience was that a somewhat larger proportion worked a full year in 1964 (47 percent) than in 1950 (45 percent). This was due mainly to a larger proportionate increase in the number of women who worked part time for 50 to 52 weeks.

Table 24.—Work Experience of Women, 1950, 1960, and 1964
(Women 14 years of age and over)

Work experience	Number (in thousands)			Percent distribution		
	1964	1960	1950	1964	1960	1950
Total	33,146	30,585	23,350	100.0	100.0	100.0
Year round:						
50 to 52 weeks:						
Full time [1]	12,418	11,299	8,592	37.5	36.9	36.8
Part time [2]	3,104	3,060	1,916	9.4	10.0	8.2
Part year:						
27 to 49 weeks:						
Full time [1]	4,968	4,479	4,171	15.0	14.6	17.9
Part time [2]	2,154	2,023	1,210	6.5	6.6	5.1
1 to 26 weeks:						
Full time [1]	5,126	4,899	4,377	15.5	16.0	18.7
Part time [2]	5,376	4,825	3,088	16.2	15.8	13.2

[1] Worked 35 hours or more a week.
[2] Worked less than 35 hours a week.

Source: "Manpower Report of the President and A Report on Manpower Requirements, Resources, Utilization, and Training by the U.S. Department of Labor," March 1966.

Work experience by age.—As might be expected, women between 18 and 64 years of age are more likely to work some time during the year than are younger girls or older women. In 1964 almost two-thirds of all women 18 to 24 years of age, almost three-fifths of those 45 to 54 years of age, and over half of those 35 to 44 years of age had work experience (table 25). In contrast, about one-third of the girls 14 to 17 years old and only one-seventh of the women 65 years of age and over worked some time during that year.

At all age levels, a larger proportion of men than of women had work experience in 1964. For men the percentage was highest among those 25 to 54 years of age (97 or 98 percent) and lowest among those 65 years of age and over (37 percent).

In the principal working age groups (18 to 64 years) the proportion of all women who worked some time during the course of 1964 was 55 percent as compared with 95 percent for men.

Table 25.—Percent of Women and Men With Work Experience in 1964, by Age

(Persons 14 years of age and over)

Age	Women	Men
Total	47.5	82.5
14 to 17 years	34.0	47.2
18 and 19 years	63.4	84.9
20 to 24 years	65.6	92.5
25 to 34 years	50.1	97.8
35 to 44 years	55.1	97.9
45 to 54 years	57.9	96.6
55 to 64 years	48.3	88.9
65 years and over	14 4	37.3
18 to 64 years	55.3	94.8

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 62.

Women 45 to 64 years of age are the most likely to work full time the year round. About 49 percent of the women in this age group were full-time year-round workers in 1964 (table 26). In contrast, only 6 percent of girls 14 to 19 years of age were on full-time schedules throughout the year.

Teenage girls and women 65 years of age and over are the most likely to work primarily at part-time jobs. In 1964, 3 out of 5 girls 14 to 19 years of age and more than half of women 65 years of age and over were part-time workers. In fact, more than 2 out of 5 of the teenagers worked at part-time jobs for 26 weeks or less. At the other end of the scale, less than 1 out of 5 women 20 to 24 years of age worked primarily at part-time jobs.

Work experience by marital status.—About 58 percent of the 33.1 million women with work experience in 1964 were married women living with their husbands (table 27). Another 24 percent were single, and the remaining 18 percent were widowed, divorced, or living apart from their husbands.

Single women were the most likely to have worked at some time in 1964. Their work experience rate was 56 percent compared with 45 percent for widowed, divorced, or separated women and 46 percent for married women (husband present).

Women who are widowed, divorced, or with husband absent are more likely to work full time the year round than are single women

Table 26.—Work Experience of Women in 1964, by Age

(Women 14 years of age and over)

Work experience	Total	Age						
		14–19 years	20–24 years	25–34 years	35–44 years	45–54 years	55–64 years	65 years and over
Number	33,146,000	4,249,000	4,363,000	5,632,000	6,851,000	6,458,000	4,195,000	1,398,000
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Worked at full-time jobs [1]	67.9	37.2	81.5	73.4	70.1	73.9	72.1	46.0
50 to 52 weeks	37.5	5.7	34.9	37.3	43.3	48.9	49.4	25.6
27 to 49 weeks	15.0	6.8	20.5	17.7	15.3	15.6	14.5	9.2
1 to 26 weeks	15.5	24.7	26.1	18.5	11.6	9.5	8.2	11.2
Worked at part-time jobs [2]	32.1	62.8	18.5	26.6	29.9	26.1	27.9	54.0
50 to 52 weeks	9.4	8.9	3.2	6.5	10.5	10.8	12.4	20.5
27 to 49 weeks	6.5	9.2	4.2	5.5	6.2	6.0	6.2	13.0
1 to 26 weeks	16.2	44.7	11.1	14.5	13.2	9.3	9.2	20.4

[1] Worked 35 hours or more a week.
[2] Worked less than 35 hours a week.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 62.

Table 27.—Work Experience of Women in 1964, by Marital Status

(Women 14 years of age and over)

Work experience	Total	Marital status		
		Single	Married (husband present)	Other [1]
Number	33, 146, 000	7, 966, 000	19, 276, 000	5, 908, 000
Percent with work experience [2]	47. 5	55. 5	45. 5	45. 1
	PERCENT DISTRIBUTION			
Total	100. 0	100. 0	100. 0	100. 0
Worked at full-time jobs: [3]				
50 to 52 weeks	37. 5	33. 8	35. 6	48. 5
27 to 49 weeks	15. 0	10. 8	16. 6	15. 6
1 to 26 weeks	15. 5	17. 0	15. 8	12. 5
Worked at part-time jobs [4]	32. 1	38. 4	32. 1	23. 4

[1] Widowed, divorced, or separated, or husband absent for other reasons.
[2] Refers to civilian noninstitutional population.
[3] Worked 35 hours or more a week.
[4] Worked less than 35 hours a week.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 62.

or married women living with their husbands. As a result, in 1964, 49 percent of the women with other marital status were full-time year-round workers compared with 36 percent of the single women and 34 percent of the married women (husband present). Conversely, widowed, divorced, or separated women are less likely to work on part-time jobs. Thus only 23 percent of these women were working less than 35 hours a week in 1964 compared with 38 percent of the single women and 32 percent of the married women (husband present).

Work experience by occupation.—Certain occupations require continuity of performance and seldom are connected with seasonal activities. Women employed in these occupations are therefore usually full-time year-round workers. For example, in 1964 a majority of women employed in three major occupational groups—nonfarm managers, officials, and proprietors (66 percent), clerical workers (51 percent), craftsmen and foremen (50 percent)—were on the job 50 to 52 weeks for 35 hours a week or more (table 28).

Other jobs provide employment opportunities for part-time work at peak periods during the day or certain days during the week. This is

Table 28.—Work Experience of Women in 1964, by Major Occupational Group

(Women 14 years of age and over)

Major occupational group of longest job	Number with work experience	Percent distribution of women with work experience				
			Worked at full-time jobs [1]			
		Total	50–52 weeks	27–49 weeks	26 weeks or less	Worked at part-time jobs [2]
Total	33,146,000	100.0	37.5	15.0	15.5	32.1
Professional, technical, kindred workers	3,899,000	100.0	41.3	24.3	12.2	22.3
Managers, officials, proprietors (except farm)	1,221,000	100.0	65.8	12.0	7.6	14.6
Clerical, kindred workers	9,763,000	100.0	51.2	12.0	14.4	22.4
Sales workers	2,626,000	100.0	26.6	8.4	14.2	50.8
Craftsmen, foremen, kindred workers	315,000	100.0	49.8	16.2	14.9	19.0
Operatives, kindred workers	4,747,000	100.0	40.8	25.3	21.5	12.4
Nonfarm laborers	157,000	100.0	28.7	5.7	17.8	47.8
Private-household workers	3,278,000	100.0	14.0	6.4	10.9	68.8
Service workers (except private-household)	5,085,000	100.0	29.6	17.7	19.5	33.2
Farmers, farm managers	163,000	100.0	29.4	2.5	4.9	63.2
Farm laborers, foremen	1,892,000	100.0	8.5	6.0	17.0	68.6

[1] Worked 35 hours or more a week.
[2] Worked less than 35 hours a week.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 62.

typical of farm work, private-household work, and sales work. As a result, in 1964 half or more of the women with work experience in four major occupational groups—farm laborers and foremen, private-household workers, farmers and farm managers, and sales workers—worked less than 35 hours a week. In fact, among private-household workers and farm laborers and foremen, the ratio working part time was as high as 7 out of 10.

Information on part-year or part-time employment of women by detailed occupations is available only from the decennial census.[20] Among women with work experience in 1959, at least some worked part of the time, part of the year, or a combination of the two in most detailed occupations. However, part-time or part-year employment was more frequent in certain occupations.

Some occupations are typically both part year and part time. For example, women giving dancing and music lessons or teaching in special schools such as kindergartens, nursery schools, adult education centers, and driver-training schools, often work only a few hours a day or in the evening and usually work only part of the year. Moreover, women working as demonstrators and door-to-door salesmen usually work less than a full week and often work seasonally.

In other occupations part-year work is prevalent. Two-thirds or more of the women working in 1959 as elementary and secondary school teachers; operatives in canning and preserving of fruits, vegetables, and seafood; counter and fountain workers; and waitresses, among others, were employed less than 50 weeks a year. Most schools operate on a 9-month schedule, and canneries and packing plants employ most of their operatives only for the harvesting season. Moreover, work in eating and drinking places and in hotels and motels is often seasonal.

Finally, there are some detailed occupations in which women usually work less than 35 hours a week. These include attendant and assistant in libraries, babysitter, laundress, and charwoman and cleaner. More than half of all attendants and assistants in libraries worked less than 35 hours a week in 1960. Women in this occupation work at peak periods—after school hours and in the evening—or as replacements for full-time workers in libraries open 6 days a week. Two-thirds of the babysitters worked less than 35 hours a week in 1959, and half worked less than 15 hours a week. Much of the work done by charwomen and cleaners is performed after office hours and does not require an 8-hour day.

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[20] "U.S. Census of Population: 1960. Occupational Characteristics, PC(2)—7A." Bureau of the Census, U.S. Department of Commerce.

Work experience of white and nonwhite women.—A larger proportion of nonwhite than of white women seek and hold jobs—57 and 46 percent, respectively, had work experience in 1964 (table 29). In addition, nonwhite women are more likely to work part time or part year. To some extent this is due to the difficulty they experience in finding full-time year-round work. Of the women who worked in 1964, 35 percent of nonwhite women were on part-time schedules compared with 32 percent of white women. Conversely, relatively more white women than nonwhite women were on the job full time the year round (38 and 32 percent, respectively).

There were also variations in the work experience of white and nonwhite women workers by age group. Among women 25 years of age and over, relatively more nonwhite women than white women worked at some time in 1964. The proportions were about equal among women 20 to 24 years of age, but among teenagers relatively fewer nonwhite than white girls had some work experience. In every age group a larger proportion of white women than nonwhite women were full-time year-round workers. Except among girls 14 to 19 years of age, relatively more nonwhite women than white women held part-time jobs.

37. Employed Women by Part-Time and Full-Time Status

The Bureau of Labor Statistics publishes another series of figures (both monthly and annual averages) on part-time and full-time employment of women and men based on the current household survey. These figures differ from those shown under work experience, since they relate solely to nonagricultural employment. Moreover, only persons working on part-time and full-time schedules at the time of the monthly survey are counted. Persons who worked less than 35 hours a week because of bad weather, industrial dispute, vacation, illness, holiday, or other noneconomic reasons are included with those on full-time schedules who worked 35 hours or more a week. Persons on part-time schedules are divided into three groups—those who usually work full time and worked part time for economic reasons (slack work, material shortages, repairs to plant or equipment, start or termination of job during the week, and inability to find full-time work), those who usually work part time and worked part time for economic reasons, and those who usually work part time for other reasons (also called voluntary part time).

Nearly 74 percent of the 21,927,000 women employed in nonagricultural industries in 1964 were on full-time schedules (table 30).

Table 29.—Work Experience of Women in 1964, by Color and Age

(Women 14 years of age and over)

Color and age	Women in the population		Percent distribution of women with work experience				
				Worked at full-time jobs [1]			
	Number	Percent with work experience	Total	50–52 weeks	27–49 weeks	26 weeks or less	Worked at part-time jobs [2]
White	62,227,000	46.4	100.0	38.2	14.8	15.3	31.7
14 to 19 years	8,609,000	43.9	100.0	6.1	6.7	23.6	63.7
20 to 24 years	5,844,000	65.6	100.0	36.8	20.9	25.0	17.4
25 to 64 years	38,798,000	51.6	100.0	45.3	15.6	12.1	27.1
65 years and over	8,776,000	13.9	100.0	27.3	9.2	11.4	52.0
Nonwhite	7,546,000	56.5	100.0	32.2	16.1	16.8	35.0
14 to 19 years	1,287,000	36.5	100.0	3.0	7.4	33.6	56.0
20 to 24 years	809,000	65.8	100.0	21.4	17.7	33.6	27.3
25 to 64 years	4,716,000	66.0	100.0	39.5	17.3	11.7	31.5
65 years and over	734,000	20.4	100.0	10.7	11.3	8.7	69.3

[1] Worked 35 hours or more a week.
[2] Worked less than 35 hours a week.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 62.

Table 30.—Women at Work in Nonagricultural Industries, by Full-Time and Part-Time Status and Selected Characteristics, 1964 [1]

(Women 14 years of age and over)

Characteristics	Number of women	Percent distribution of women at work				
		Total	On full-time schedules	On part-time schedules for—		
				Economic reasons [2]		Other reasons
				Usually work full time	Usually work part time	Usually work part time
Total	21,927,000	100.0	73.9	1.8	2.7	21.6
Age:						
14 to 17 years	1,048,000	100.0	16.7	.6	5.2	77.5
18 and 19 years	1,101,000	100.0	71.0	1.9	4.4	22.7
20 to 24 years	2,744,000	100.0	84.4	1.7	2.2	11.7
25 to 34 years	3,545,000	100.0	77.9	1.8	2.1	18.2
35 to 44 years	4,823,000	100.0	75.5	2.0	2.4	20.1
45 to 64 years	7,860,000	100.0	77.6	1.8	2.7	17.8
65 years and over	806,000	100.0	53.0	.9	3.7	42.5
Marital status:						
Single	5,247,000	100.0	70.9	1.1	3.0	24.9
Married (husband present)	12,149,000	100.0	73.3	2.0	2.1	22.6
Other [3]	4,530,000	100.0	78.9	1.8	4.1	15.2
Color:						
White	19,244,000	100.0	74.6	1.7	1.9	21.8
Nonwhite	2,682,000	100.0	68.6	2.4	8.4	20.6

[1] Annual average.

[2] Includes women who worked less than 35 hours during the survey week because of slack work, job changing during the week, material shortages, inability to find full-time work, etc.

[3] Widowed, divorced, or separated or husband absent for other reasons.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Employment and Earnings, January 1965.

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About 22 percent were employed part time by choice, and the remainder worked part time involuntarily. In contrast, 91 percent of the men were on full-time schedules, and only 6 percent worked part time voluntarily.

Part-time and full-time employment by selected characteristics.—Full-time employment is characteristic of most women 18 to 64 years of age. In 1964 at least 70 percent of all women in this broad age group were on full-time schedules. Full-time work was most prevalent (84 percent) among women 20 to 24 years of age. On the other hand, girls under 18 years of age and women 65 years of age and over are the most likely to seek part-time work—78 percent of girls under 18 years of age and 43 percent of women 65 years of age and over worked part time by choice in 1964.

Women who are widowed, divorced, or separated from their husbands are the most likely to work full time—79 percent were on full-time schedules in 1964, and only 15 percent worked part time voluntarily. On the other hand, 25 percent of the single women worked part time by choice. It must be remembered, however, that this group includes most of the more than 800,000 girls under 18 years of age who worked part time voluntarily.

Relatively fewer nonwhite women than white women were on full-time schedules in 1964—69 percent compared with 75 percent. However, 11 percent of the nonwhite women worked part time for economic reasons compared with only 4 percent of white women. As a result, the proportion of white women working part time voluntarily (22 percent) was slightly higher than the proportion of nonwhite women (21 percent).

Unemployment among part-time and full-time women workers.—Women and teenagers are more inclined to seek part-time work than are men 20 years of age and over. Of the 1,605,000 women looking for work in 1964, 21 percent sought part-time jobs (table 31). The percent looking for part-time work was almost twice as high for girls under 20 years of age (33 percent) as for women 20 years of age and over (17 percent). But the proportion looking for part-time work was highest among teenage boys (42 percent). In contrast, only 6 percent of men 20 years of age and over wanted part-time work in 1964.

Nearly 70 percent of all girls under 20 years of age who were attending school and looking for work in 1964 looked for part-time jobs. Many unemployed women 55 years of age and over also preferred part-time work—23 percent. On the other hand, only 13 percent of unemployed women 20 to 24 years of age sought part-time work.

Another measure of unemployment in relation to part-time and full-time work comes from a special study made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics.[21] One of the most significant findings reported in this study is that the unemployment rate among women part-time workers is very low.

Table 31.—Unemployed Women Looking for Full-Time or Part-Time Work, by Age, 1964 [1]

(Women 14 years of age and over)

Age	Women looking for—		Looking for part-time work as a percent of all unemployed women
	Full-time work	Part-time work	
Total	1,268,000	337,000	21.0
14 to 19 years	273,000	137,000	33.4
Major activity:			
Attending school	41,000	91,000	68.9
All other	231,000	45,000	16.3
20 to 24 years	241,000	35,000	12.7
25 to 54 years	636,000	129,000	16.9
55 years and over	118,000	35,000	22.9

[1] Annual average.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Employment and Earnings, January 1965.

The unemployment rate for adult women (20 years of age and over) working part time in the combined 10-month period January to October 1964 was only 4.4 percent. In contrast, the unemployment rate among adult men on part-time jobs was 6.4 percent. Like adult women, teenagers who were part-time workers had a lower unemployment rate (11.8 percent) than those who usually worked full time (17.6 percent). On the other hand, adult men who were full-time workers had a much lower unemployment rate (3.8 percent) than did adult women on full-time jobs (5.5 percent).

38. Labor Turnover and Absenteeism

Labor turnover.—Labor turnover rates are influenced more by the skill level of the job, the age of the worker, and the worker's record of job stability than by the sex of the worker. A recent survey showed that changing jobs was more frequent among younger workers than

[21] Monthly Report on the Laobr Force, October 1964. Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor.

among older ones, among unskilled and semiskilled workers than among those in skilled and professional and technical occupations, and among workers with few years of employment than among those with long employment records.[22]

Naturally, however, the working life pattern of women—with many working for a few years after finishing school, leaving the labor force for marriage and child-raising, and returning to the labor force after their children are grown or reach school age—does produce in general higher labor turnover rates for women than for men.

Information on the comparative turnover rates of women and men is difficult to obtain. According to a study of such rates for factory workers during the period January 1950 to January 1955, the average quit rate for women employees was only slightly higher than that for men employees (24 out of 1,000 compared with 18 out of 1,000).[23]

The U.S. Civil Service Commission made a study of the relative voluntary separation (turnover) rates of women and men full-time career employees in the Federal Government during the period December 16, 1962, to February 2, 1963.[24] On an overall basis the separation rate for women was about 2½ times greater than that for men. The higher rate for women is explained in part by the large number of women in Federal civil service who (1) are under 25 years of age, (2) are in lower grade clerical jobs (particularly in the occupations of stenographer and typist, which have the highest turnover rates), and (3) have few years of Federal service. These groups have higher turnover rates than others regardless of sex. When the data for women and men are compared by age group, by broad occupational group, and by length of service, the differences in their relative turnover rates decrease.

A study of job mobility in all industries made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in 1961 indicated that men tend to move from one job to another somewhat more often than do women.[25] Eleven percent of men workers, but only 8.6 percent of women workers, changed jobs in 1961. (This study may understate the job mobility of the labor force, and especially of women, since it included only those persons who moved from one job to another and excluded those persons who left a job and did not find another.)

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[22] Special Labor Force Report No. 35. Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor.

[23] "Labor Turnover of Women Factory Workers, 1950–55." *In* Monthly Labor Review, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, August 1955.

[24] Report of the Committee on Federal Employment, Appendix F. President's Commission on the Status of Women. October 1963.

[25] See footnote 22.

Although job-changing was highest among young workers regardless of sex, the turnover rate was somewhat less for girls than for boys. About 1 out of 4 boys 18 and 19 years of age and an equal ratio of young men 20 to 24 years of age who worked in 1961 changed jobs at least once. About 1 out of 5 girls 18 and 19 years old and about 1 out of 6 young women 20 to 24 years of age changed jobs during the year. Many such young people shop for jobs as they start their work careers. Others are laid off because they lack the skills to command steady jobs or the seniority to protect them against involuntary separation.

The most important reason women 20 to 54 years of age gave for changing jobs in 1961 was to secure a better one. In contrast, men over 35 stated loss of job as the most important reason for job-changing.

By major occupational group the rate of job-changing for women was highest among service workers (except private-household), followed by nonfarm laborers and clerical workers. Among men job-changing was most frequent among nonfarm laborers, followed in descending order by farm laborers and foremen, operatives, craftsmen and foremen, and sales workers. The job-changing rates for women and men professional and technical workers were about the same—less than 1 out of 10.

Another measure of job stability is job tenure. A special study made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics explored the length of time that workers had been employed continuously on the job each held in January 1963.[26] It showed that on the average (median) women had spent 3 years on their current job compared with 5.7 years for men. The study further showed that job tenure increased with age, but somewhat less for women than for men. In general, both women and men workers under 25 years of age had averaged less than 1 year on their current job. Among workers 25 to 44 years old, women had been with the same employer about 3 years on the average compared with 5 years for men. Among those 45 years old and over, the average job tenure for women was about 7 years—still considerably less than the 13 years for men.

By marital status it was found that single women had about the same job tenure as did men in the same age groups. After age 45 single women tend to stay even longer with the same employer than do single men. However, relatively few women remain single, and the job pattern of married women dominates the overall employment

[26] Special Labor Force Report No. 36. Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor.

pattern for women. The average tenure in January 1963 for married women (3.4 years) was much higher than that for single women (1.8 years). The difference reflects the greater proportion of married women in age groups (35 years and over) with longer job tenure and the overwhelming percentage of single women in the youngest age groups, where job tenure is very low. The average time on the current job was much longer for full-time women workers (3.4 years) than for part-time women workers (2.0 years).

The average job tenure was about the same for nonwhite and white women, and also about the same proportion (20 percent) of nonwhite and white women had held their current job for more than 10 years. A greater proportion of nonwhite women than of white women are in service occupations where work is less steady than in the clerical occupations where white women are concentrated. This might be expected to result in a shorter average job tenure for nonwhite women, but this factor is offset by the more continuous association of nonwhite women with the labor force because of economic need, as reflected in their higher labor-force participation rates.

A comparison of job tenure in January 1963 by major industry group showed that women workers in transportation and public utilities had been with the same employer the longest on the average (about 6 years). The shortest average job tenures for women (about 2.5 years) were among those employed in service industries and in finance and trade. Women factory workers had an average of 4 years of continuous job attachment. Among them, workers in nonelectrical machinery and fabricated metals industries had the longest average job tenures (6.0 and 5.5 years, respectively). On the other hand, women employed in the apparel industry had one of the shortest average job tenures for women in the goods-producing industries (3.5 years).

By occupation the study indicated that the women who had the greatest job stability were in occupations that require the most training or experience or that provide the least opportunity to make a move. Among the latter, for example, were women farm laborers and foremen, who had the highest average number of years (9.9) with the same employer. Many of them were unpaid workers on family farms, and one-third had spent over 15 years on the current job. The numbers were, of course, small. Also, characteristically they were an older group. Equally small were the numbers of women managers, officials, and proprietors, who had the next longest average tenure (5.8 years); and they were also an older group. Women craftsmen had spent an average of 4.8 years on the job; operatives and kindred workers, 4.1 years.

Professional and technical workers, of whom almost 3 out of 5 had spent 5 years or less with the same employer, had a relatively low average job tenure of 3.7 years, partly because they were a somewhat younger group and partly because they had more opportunities for job changes. Clerical workers, also a younger group, averaged 3 years on the current job; service workers, including private-household workers, less than 2 years. Service jobs are likely to be part time and part year in nature. It is not surprising, therefore, that more than 7 out of 10 women in private-household and other service jobs had spent 5 years or less on their current job.

Absenteeism.—Labor turnover is one factor of labor costs. Another important factor is absenteeism. On the average women lose more workdays because of acute conditions than do men, but the reverse is true for chronic conditions such as heart trouble, arthritis, rheumatism, and orthopedic impairment. According to a study made by the U.S. Public Health Service, employed persons 17 years of age and over lost an average of 3.25 days in the period July 1963 to June 1964 because of acute conditions (3.3 for women and 3.2 for men).[27]

When both types of conditions were counted, the worktime lost by persons 17 years of age and over because of illness or injury showed an average of 5.4 days for women and 5.6 days for men over the same period.[28]

39. Dual Jobholders

More than half a million women (511,000), or about 2 percent of all employed women, held more than one wage or salary job in May 1964 (table 32). The highest proportion of these "moonlighters" (2.3 percent) were in age group 25 to 44 years, the same age group in which men show the highest proportion of multiple jobholding. These are typically the years in which financial obligations are heavy. Among women the lowest proportions were for age groups 14 to 24 years (1.8 percent) and 65 years and over (1.7 percent). Women are much less likely to hold more than one job than are men. More than 3 million men, or 6.9 percent, were dual jobholders in May 1964.

On their second job women averaged 8 hours a week compared with 13 hours for men. On their primary jobs women moonlighters were mainly clerical, professional and technical, or service workers.

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[27] Vital and Health Statistics, Series 10, No. 15. Public Health Service, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

[28] Vital and Health Statistics, Series 10, No. 18. Public Health Service, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

Table 32.—Women With Two or More Jobs, by Occupation of Primary and Secondary Jobs, May 1964

(Women 14 years of age and over)

Occupation	Women with two or more jobs		Percent distribution	
	Number	As percent of total employed[1]	Primary job	Secondary job
All occupations	511,000	2.1	100.0	100.0
Professional, technical, kindred workers	107,000	3.4	20.9	17.8
Medical and other health workers	12,000	1.5	2.3	1.8
Teachers (except college)	48,000	3.4	9.4	4.1
Other professional, technical, kindred workers	47,000	5.0	9.2	11.9
Managers, officials, proprietors (except farm)	19,000	1.7	3.7	6.8
Clerical, kindred workers	141,000	1.9	27.6	18.8
Sales workers	22,000	1.3	4.3	12.9
Retail trade	18,000	1.2	3.5	10.6
Other sales workers	4,000	1.8	.8	2.3
Craftsmen, foremen, kindred workers	7,000	2.8	1.4	----
Operatives, kindred workers	42,000	1.1	8.2	2.5
Private-household workers	32,000	1.4	6.3	10.2
Service workers (except private-household)	96,000	2.5	18.8	19.2
Waitresses, cooks, bartenders	48,000	3.3	9.4	6.7
Other service workers	48,000	2.0	9.4	12.5
Farmers, farm managers	5,000	3.3	1.0	6.5
Farm laborers, foremen	40,000	5.2	7.8	5.3

[1] Persons with two or more jobs as percent of all women employed in occupational group.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 51.

Most dual jobholders worked in a different industry or occupation on their secondary jobs.

The question is often raised whether moonlighters are depriving the unemployed of job opportunities. The analysis of the Bureau of Labor Statistics indicates that this is not the case. Comparatively few unemployed persons could or would take the secondary jobs held by dual jobholders. Most of these jobs are part time, and many require special qualifications or skills.

40. Unemployed Women

Unemployed women—those in the labor force but not able to find work—averaged 1.6 million in 1964. The unemployment rate for women 14 years of age and over was 6.2 percent. This was substantially higher than the 4.7 percent unemployment rate among men. Women not only have a higher unemployment rate than men, but the gap has been widening in recent years.

One of the reasons for women's continued high unemployment rate is that they move in and out of the labor force more frequently than men do. But the higher rate among women is also the result of the more restrictive and discriminatory hiring practices that affect women—whether they are low-skilled workers with only limited education or highly skilled professionals with much education. Unemployment is a problem for women in almost all occupations and at all ages, but for some groups it is a far more serious problem than it is for others. For girls and women who are members of families living in poverty or for those who must support themselves and others, unemployment is as tragic as it is for male heads of families.

Trends in unemployment rates.—Beginning with 1948, women's unemployment rates have been generally higher than those of men, except in 1958 when the rates for both sexes were the same—at a high of 6.8 percent, reflecting the 1957–58 recession (table 33). During the next recession, 1960–61, the unemployment rate of men reached 6.5 percent (1961)—below their 1958 high. Women's unemployment rate (7.2 percent), in contrast, was above their 1958 rate and was substantially higher than that of men. From 1958 on, the unemployment rate has declined less for women than for men. In 1964 the differential was 1.5 percentage points—the greatest gap between the two rates since 1951.

Unemployment by marital status.—From the standpoint of marital status, the highest unemployment rate in 1964 was that of single women (8.7 percent). The rates were 5.1 percent for married women (husband present) and 6.4 percent for the group of widowed, divorced, or separated women.

Unemployment by age.—By age group the highest unemployment rate for women in 1964 occurred among those 14 to 19 years old. The rates then progressively declined for each age group, with the lowest rate prevailing for women 65 years old and over (chart L) (table 34). Although teenagers' unemployment was the highest, it was generally of short duration. Few girls were unemployed longer than 4 weeks, but some might have had several periods of unemployment in the year.

Table 33.—Unemployment Rates of Women and Men, 1947–64

(Persons 14 years of age and over)

Year	Women	Men
1964	6.2	4.7
1963	6.5	5.3
1962	6.2	5.3
1961	7.2	6.5
1960	5.9	5.4
1959	5.9	5.3
1958	6.8	6.8
1957	4.7	4.1
1956	4.3	3.5
1955	4.3	3.9
1954	5.4	4.9
1953	2.7	2.4
1952	3.1	2.4
1951	3.9	2.6
1950	5.3	4.9
1949	5.4	5.5
1948	3.6	3.3
1947	3.2	3.7

Note.—Data for years prior to 1960 are not strictly comparable, since they exclude Alaska and Hawaii and because of the introduction of decennial censuses into the estimation procedure in 1953 and 1962.

Source: "Manpower Report of the President and A Report on Manpower Requirements, Resources, Utilization, and Training by the U.S. Department of Labor." March 1965.

Older women's unemployment, in contrast, was of longer duration; and the older the women were, the longer they had to search for a job.

In the youngest age group, 14 and 15 years old, 24,000 girls on the average were looking for jobs in 1964.[29] This was an unemployment rate of 5.9 percent compared with 9.0 percent for boys of the same age.

Most of these young girls were seeking their first job, usually a part-time job to fit in with school attendance. Normally, only about 12 percent of girls this age have jobs, and most of these girls are babysitters. Whether school dropouts or not, their limited schooling and their lack of skills and experience make it difficult for them to find regular employment.

This problem is equally great for 16- to 19-year-old girls, although their educational and skill level is higher. Girls in this age group have

[29] Employment and Earnings, January 1965. Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor.

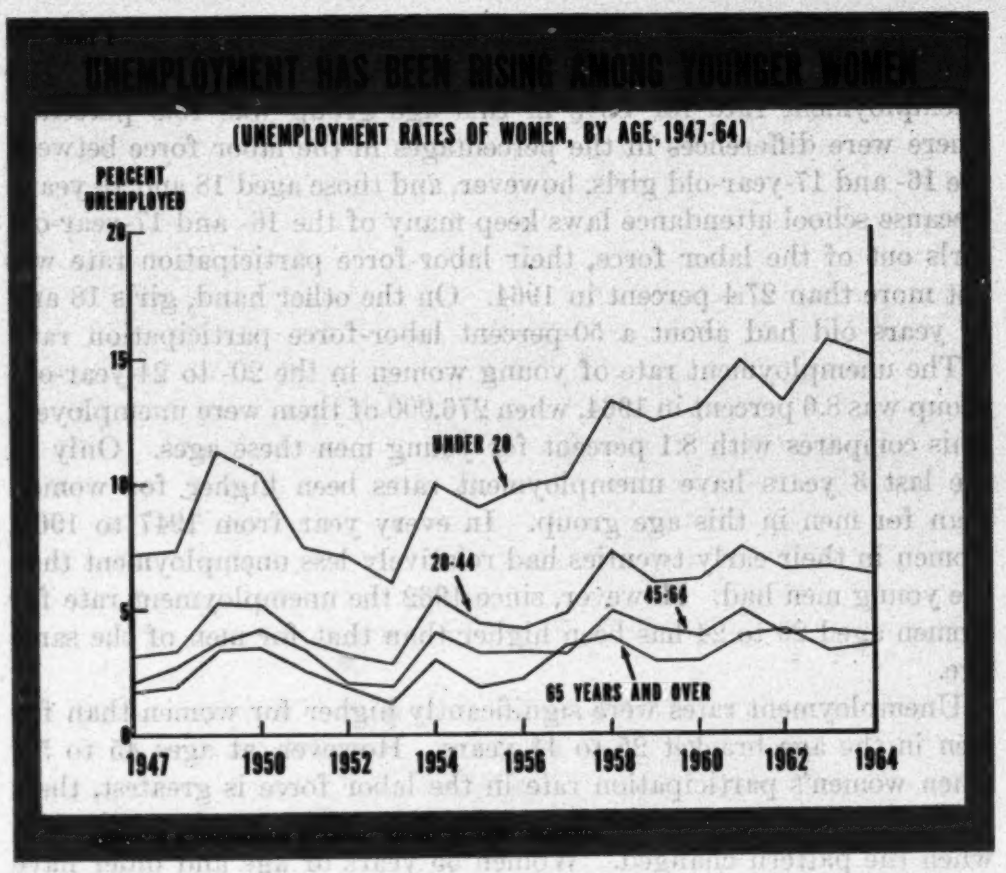


Table 34.—Unemployment Rates of Women and Men, by Age, 1964

Age	Women	Men
Total	6.2	4.7
14 to 19 years	15.0	14.5
14 and 15 years	5.9	9.0
16 to 19 years	16.7	15.8
20 to 24 years	8.6	8.1
25 to 34 years	6.3	3.5
35 to 44 years	5.0	2.9
45 to 54 years	3.9	3.2
55 to 64 years	3.5	3.9
65 years and over	3.4	4.0

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Employment and Earnings, January 1965.

the highest unemployment rate among women of all ages—16.7 percent in 1964, when 386,000 of these girls were looking for jobs. (The unemployment rate for boys in this age group was 15.8 percent.) There were differences in the percentages in the labor force between the 16- and 17-year-old girls, however, and those aged 18 and 19 years. Because school attendance laws keep many of the 16- and 17-year-old girls out of the labor force, their labor-force participation rate was not more than 27.4 percent in 1964. On the other hand, girls 18 and 19 years old had about a 50-percent labor-force participation rate.

The unemployment rate of young women in the 20- to 24-year-old group was 8.6 percent in 1964, when 276,000 of them were unemployed. This compares with 8.1 percent for young men these ages. Only in the last 3 years have unemployment rates been higher for women than for men in this age group. In every year from 1947 to 1961, women in their early twenties had relatively less unemployment than the young men had. However, since 1962 the unemployment rate for women aged 20 to 24 has been higher than that for men of the same age.

Unemployment rates were significantly higher for women than for men in the age bracket 25 to 44 years. However, at ages 45 to 54, when women's participation rate in the labor force is greatest, their unemployment rates were not much higher than men's until 1963, when the pattern changed. Women 55 years of age and older have slightly lower unemployment rates than do men in this age group.

Special unemployment problems of teenagers.—Among the 410,000 girls 14 to 19 years old who were unemployed in 1964, 1 out of 3 was looking only for part-time work (table 35). This was a greater proportion than the 1 out of 5 of all unemployed women 14 years of age and over and 1 out of 7 of all unemployed men who were seeking part-time employment in that year. Teenagers, of course, seek part-time work mainly to fit in with school atendance. Almost 7 out of 10 of the unemployed girls who were in school were seeking less than full-time employment. Of those not in school, only 1 out of 6 was looking for part-time work.

Finding an employer who has part-time job vacancies may present some difficulties. In addition, many of the girls are looking for their first steady job, which also presents more than the usual obstacles, and these first jobs may turn out to be transitory. Thus a special study made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics indicated that of a group of 16- to 21-year-old unemployed young women, 2 out of 5 had never worked before.[30] Among those who had worked, 1 out of 4 had lost

[30] Special Labor Force Report No. 47. Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor.

Table 35.—Unemployed Women and Men Looking for Full-Time or Part-Time Work, 1964[1]

(Persons 14 years of age and over)

Sex and age	Looking for full-time work	Looking for part-time work	Looking for part-time work as percent of unemployed in each group
Total number women and men	3,201,000	676,000	17.4
Percent	100.0	100.0	----------
Men	60.4	50.1	14.9
Women	39.6	49.9	21.0
Total number women	1,268,000	337,000	21.0
Percent	100.0	100.0	----------
14 to 19 years	21.5	40.7	33.4
Major activity:			
Attending school	3.2	27.0	68.9
All other	18.3	13.6	16.3
20 to 24 years	19.0	10.4	12.7
25 to 54 years	50.2	38.3	16.9
55 years and over	9.3	10.4	22.9

[1] Annual average.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Employment and Earnings, January 1965.

her job through circumstances beyond her control, such as slack work, no more work available, or the firm had moved or gone out of business. A little more than 1 out of 5 of these girls had left her job voluntarily for household responsibilities, and another 1 out of 7 had left voluntarily to find a better job.

It is of some interest to examine the types of jobs young people 16 to 21 years old had prior to being unemployed. It appears that young women and men had been in quite different types of work (table 36). About 2 out of 5 of the girls had been either white-collar workers or service workers in 1963, and only 1 out of 5 had been a blue-collar worker. In contrast, more than 3 out of 4 of the boys had been blue-collar workers, only 1 out of 10 had been a service worker, and less than 1 out of 16 had been a white-collar worker.

"Hidden" unemployment and "underemployment".—In addition to reported unemployment, there is also concealed unemployment at all ages, but especially among older age groups. Women who are no longer seeking work are considered outside the labor force statistically and not counted among the unemployed. Since no account is taken

Table 36.—Percent Distribution of Experienced Unemployed Young People, by Sex and Type of Work of Last Job, February 1963

(Persons 16 to 21 years of age)

Type of work	*Girls*	*Boys*
Total	100.0	100.0
White-collar work	39.8	5.7
Blue-collar work	19.3	76.0
Service work	40.9	9.8
Farm work	----------	8.4

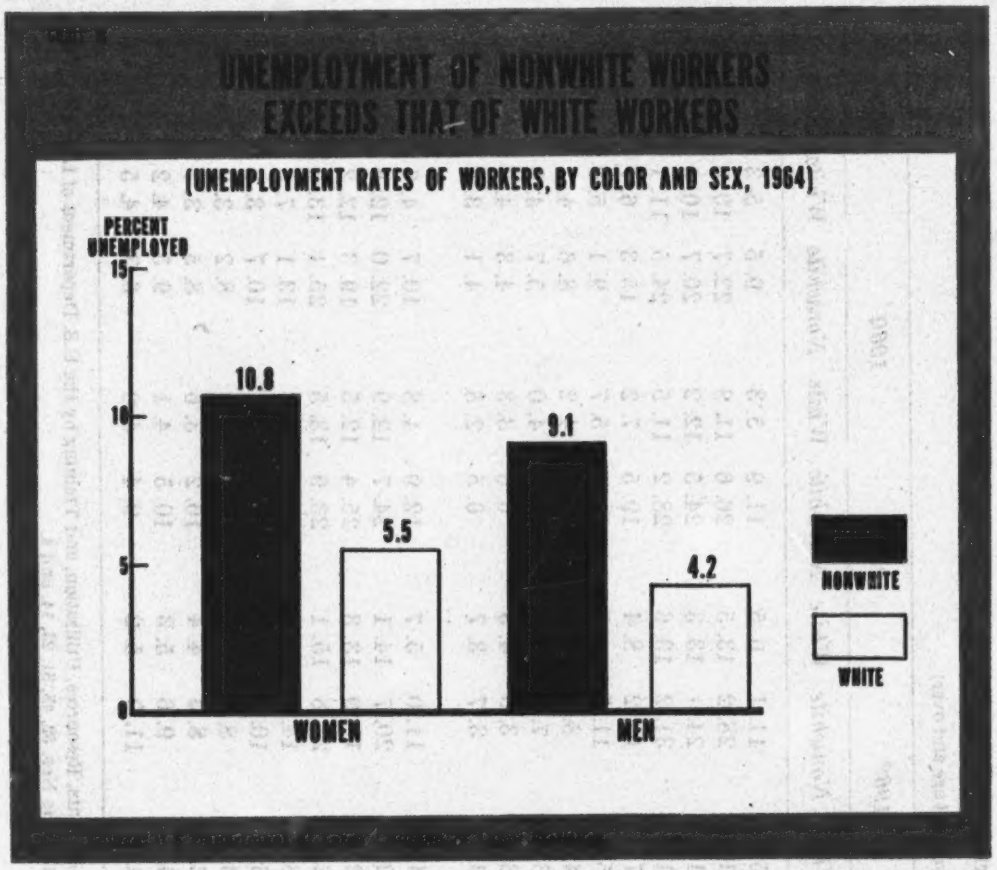
Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 46.

of the many who have given up jobhunting because it seemed hopeless, unemployment rates of older women may be deceptively low. Of the almost 400,000 women 45 years of age and over who were unemployed in 1964, about 16 percent had been looking for work for 6 months or longer. Many more thousands may have given up looking.

The "hidden" unemployed among women are probably the least employable in terms of education, skills, industry attachment, or job vacancies in their communities. Yet unemployment could bear particularly hard on them. And it must be remembered that in many rural and generally depressed areas of this country, job opportunities may not exist.

There are still other women who have jobs but do not work as many hours or weeks as they would like. They are the "underemployed"—those who work part time or part year, but would prefer full-time year-round steady jobs if they could find them. These, too, are disadvantaged in terms of employment.

Unemployment of white and nonwhite women.—Compared with the unemployment rates of all women, those of nonwhite women present special aspects of severity and hardship (chart M) (table 37). Not only are the unemployment rates of nonwhite teenagers and women considerably higher than those of white at each age group, but also unemployment is typically of longer duration. While the labor-force participation rate of nonwhite teenage girls (23 percent) in 1964 was lower than that of white girls (29 percent), their unemployment rate was more than twice that of white girls—30.6 percent of nonwhite girls 14 to 19 years old were looking for work compared with 13.2 percent of white girls. The difference was even larger in the age group 16 and 17 years old—36.5 percent of nonwhite girls and 17.1 percent of white girls were unemployed.



For nonwhite girls in the age group 16 to 21 years who had dropped out before completing high school (55 percent in February 1963), unemployment was severe.[31] (Unemployment rates by educational attainment are discussed in chapter 4.) The unemployment rate in February 1963 was 26.7 percent. This is understandable because high school dropouts are least qualified for the jobs of today's complex society. Less easily explained is the fact that nonwhite girls who were high school graduates had an even higher unemployment rate—35.6 percent. It is assumed that this unusually high rate is the result of the difficulty these girls have in obtaining the white-collar jobs to which they aspire and for which they may have been trained in high school commercial courses.

Unemployment by occupation.—A look at women's unemployment rates by principal occupation as shown in the 1960 Census of Population reveals the wide range among different types of jobs (table 38).

[31] Special Labor Force Report No. 46. Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor.

Table 37.—Unemployment Rates, by Sex, Color, and Age, 1959–64

(Persons 14 years of age and over)

Sex and age	1964		1963		1962		1961		1960		1959	
	White	Nonwhite	White	Nonwhite	White	Nonwhite	White	Nonwhite	White	Nonwhite	White	Nonwhite
Women	5.5	10.8	5.8	11.3	5.5	11.1	6.5	11.9	5.3	9.5	5.3	9.5
14 to 19 years	13.2	30.6	13.6	33.1	11.5	28.2	13.5	26.6	11.9	22.7	10.6	24.9
14 to 17 years	13.2	32.5	14.1	34.4	11.7	24.1	13.3	24.5	12.2	20.7	10.5	20.0
18 and 19 years	13.2	29.2	13.2	31.9	11.3	31.2	13.6	28.2	11.5	24.5	11.1	29.9
20 to 24 years	7.1	18.3	7.4	18.7	7.7	18.2	8.4	19.5	7.2	15.3	6.7	14.9
25 to 34 years	5.2	11.2	5.8	11.7	5.4	11.5	6.6	11.1	5.7	9.1	5.0	9.7
35 to 44 years	4.5	7.8	4.6	8.2	4.5	8.9	5.6	10.7	4.2	8.6	4.7	7.6
45 to 54 years	3.6	6.1	3.9	6.1	3.7	7.1	4.8	7.4	4.0	5.7	4.0	6.1
55 to 64 years	3.5	3.8	3.5	4.8	3.4	3.6	4.3	6.3	3.3	4.3	4.0	5.0
65 years and over	3.4	2.2	3.0	3.6	4.0	3.7	3.7	6.5	2.8	4.1	3.4	2.3
Men	4.2	9.1	4.7	10.6	4.6	11.0	5.7	12.9	4.8	10.7	4.6	11.5
14 to 19 years	13.4	23.3	14.2	25.4	12.3	20.7	14.1	24.7	12.9	22.0	12.5	22.8
14 to 17 years	13.4	23.3	14.3	23.1	12.1	19.9	13.3	25.4	12.5	19.3	12.2	18.8
18 and 19 years	13.4	23.1	14.2	27.4	12.7	21.8	15.1	23.9	13.5	25.1	13.0	27.2
20 to 24 years	7.4	12.6	7.8	15.5	8.0	14.6	10.0	15.3	8.3	13.1	7.5	16.3
25 to 34 years	3.0	7.7	3.9	9.5	3.8	10.5	4.9	12.9	4.1	10.7	3.8	12.3
35 to 44 years	2.5	6.2	2.9	8.0	3.1	8.6	4.0	10.7	3.3	8.2	3.2	8.9
45 to 54 years	2.9	5.9	3.3	7.1	3.5	8.3	4.4	10.2	3.6	8.5	3.7	7.9
55 to 64 years	3.5	8.1	4.0	7.4	4.1	9.6	5.3	10.5	4.1	9.5	4.2	8.7
65 years and over	3.6	8.3	4.1	10.1	4.1	11.9	5.2	9.4	4.0	6.3	4.5	8.4

Source: "Manpower Report of the President and A Report on Manpower Requirements, Resources, Utilization, and Training by the U.S. Department of Labor." March 1965. U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Reports Nos. 52, 43, 31, 23, 14, and 4.

The highest unemployment rates (9 to 13 percent) were those of assemblers in factories, packers and wrappers, operatives in electrical machinery manufacturing, and checkers and examiners in manufacturing. In contrast, there was almost no unemployment (less than 1 percent) among elementary and secondary school teachers and very little (less than 2 percent) among secretaries, professional nurses, and hairdressers and cosmetologists. Unemployment rates of women in other principal occupations fell between these extremes. Rates were about 5 percent for saleswomen and private-household workers (n.e.c.) (occupations in which more than a million women were employed in 1960) and 8 percent for waitresses (of whom 715,000 were employed in 1960).

Table 38.—Unemployment Rates of Women, by Principal Occupation, 1960
(Women 14 years of age and over)

Occupation [1]	Employed women		Unemployment rate [2]
	Number	As percent of total employed	
Total	21,172,301	----------	5.1
Secretaries	1,423,352	97	1.9
Saleswomen (retail trade)	1,397,364	54	5.1
Private-household workers (n.e.c.)	1,162,683	96	5.3
Teachers (elementary school)	860,413	86	.7
Bookkeepers	764,054	84	2.5
Waitresses	714,827	87	8.0
Nurses (professional)	567,884	98	1.6
Sewers and stitchers (mfg.)	534,258	94	7.8
Typists	496,735	95	3.9
Cashiers	367,954	78	4.9
Cooks (except private-household)	361,772	64	5.1
Telephone operators	341,797	96	4.0
Babysitters	319,735	98	6.5
Attendants (hospitals and other institutions)	288,268	74	4.2
Laundry and drycleaning operatives	277,396	72	6.4
Assemblers	270,769	44	12.9
Operatives (apparel and accessories)	270,619	75	8.1
Hairdressers and cosmetologists	267,050	89	1.7
Packers and wrappers (n.e.c.)	262,935	60	12.4
Stenographers	258,554	96	2.1
Teachers (secondary school)	243,452	47	.6
Office machine operators	227,849	74	3.6
Checkers, examiners, and inspectors (mfg.)	215,066	45	9.1

See footnotes at end of table.

Table 38.—Unemployment Rates of Women, by Principal Occupation, 1960—Continued

(Women 14 years of age and over)

Occupation[1]	Employed women		
	Number	As percent of total employed	Unemployment rate[2]
Practical nurses	197,115	96	5.0
Kitchen workers (n.e.c.) (except private-household)	179,796	59	8.1
Chambermaids and maids (except private-household)	162,433	98	8.0
Housekeepers (private-household)	143,290	99	3.8
Operatives (electrical machinery, equipment, and supplies)	138,001	48	9.8
Receptionists	131,142	98	4.1
Charwomen and cleaners	122,728	68	5.6
Housekeepers and stewardesses (except private-household)	117,693	81	3.4
Dressmakers and seamstresses (except factory)	115,252	97	3.6
Counter and fountain workers	112,547	71	5.5
File clerks	112,323	86	5.5
Musicians and music teachers	109,638	57	1.4
Operatives (yarn, thread, and fabric mills)	103,399	44	8.4

[1] Individual occupations in which 100,000 or more women were employed in 1960.

[2] Experienced civilian labor force.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: "U.S. Census of Population: 1960. Detailed Characteristics, U.S. Summary, PC(1)—1D." 1963.

41. Women as Members of Unions

An estimated 3,413,016[32] women were members of national and international labor unions in the United States in 1964, according to a survey made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. This was an increase of about 141,010 since 1962. Almost 1 out of 5 union members in 1964 was a woman.

About 1 out of 8 women in the Nation's labor force, but more than 1 out of 4 men workers, belonged to a union. The relatively low proportion of women who are union members reflects to some extent the nature of women's employment and the industries in which they work. Women who expect to remain in the labor force only a few years or who are part-time or part-year workers may feel less inclined to join a union than do men who expect to work during most of their lives.

[32] May include a few members living outside the United States.

Moreover, the largest number of women in the labor force are clerical and service workers and thus are in industries in which union organization is less extensive than among the blue-collar workers of manufacturing industries.

Among 189 unions participating in the 1964 survey, 142 indicated that they had women members (table 39). The highest membership figures for women were reported by unions which have collective bargaining contracts in industries that normally employ large numbers of women. About 19 percent of all women members, for example, were in two unions in the apparel industry (International Ladies' Garment Workers and Amalgamated Clothing Workers). Other unions that reported a sizable female membership were the International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers, the Hotel & Restaurant Employees, and the Retail Clerks.

In addition, there were relatively large numbers of women members in several big industrial and transportation unions, although women represented only a small portion of their total membership. This group of unions included automobile and machinery manufacturing.

There are no unions exclusively for women. In 5 unions women constituted at least 80 percent of the membership, and their combined total in these unions amounted to 402,000. In 101 unions women's membership ranged from none to less than 10 percent. On the other hand, women formed at least one-half of the membership in 26 unions, which in turn accounted for more than two-fifths of women's union membership.

In terms of affiliation, it is estimated that 89 percent of the women members belonged to the AFL–CIO and 11 percent belonged to unaffiliated unions.

Table 39.—Women Members in Labor Unions,[1] 1964

Union	Approximate number of women
American Federation of Labor and Congress of Industrial Organizations:	
International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union	353, 854
Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America	282, 750
International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers	241, 800
Retail Clerks International Association	213, 778
Hotel & Restaurant Employees and Bartenders International Union	200, 061
Communications Workers of America	161, 645
International Union, United Automobile, Aerospace and Agricultural Implement Workers of America	151, 849
Building Service Employees' International Union	96, 000
International Union of Electrical, Radio, and Machine Workers	90, 190
International Association of Machinists and Aerospace Workers	80, 807
Textile Workers Union of America	70, 800
Retail, Wholesale and Department Store Union	66, 800
American Federation of Teachers	60, 000
Brotherhood of Railway and Steamship Clerks, Freight Handlers, Express and Station Employes	48, 600
Amalgamated Meat Cutters and Butcher Workmen of North America	44, 378
Office Employes International Union	42, 250
International Brotherhood of Bookbinders	36, 234
United Federation of Postal Clerks	34, 750
American Federation of Government Employees	34, 661
United Rubber, Cork, Linoleum and Plastic Workers of America	32, 932
United Packinghouse, Food and Allied Workers	30, 595
United Shoe Workers of America	28, 050
American Bakery and Confectionery Workers' International Union	27, 964
International Leather Goods, Plastic and Novelty Workers' Union	27, 750
Unaffiliated:	
Alliance of Independent Telephone Unions	50, 425
United Electrical, Radio and Machine Workers of America	41, 250
International Brotherhood of Teamsters, Chauffeurs, Warehousemen and Helpers of America	(2)

[1] Unions reporting 25,000 or more women workers.
[2] Data not reported, but number of women believed to be significant.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Directory of National and International Labor Unions in the United States, 1965."

Womanpower Reserve

Women 14 years of age and over not in the labor force make up a womanpower reserve—a potential source of additional workers who might be needed in an expanding economy or in time of national emergency. Some of these are highly educated, and many have received on-the-job training during previous work experience.

Women not in the labor force numbered 36.4 million in 1963 and were over three-fourths of all persons who did not work or look for work in that year.[33] A majority (73 percent) of women not in the labor force in 1963 gave home responsibilities as their reason for not working. Other reasons given by such women were going to school (14 percent) and illness or disability (6 percent). Less than 2 percent did not work in 1963 because of inability to find work.

The number of women who did not work in 1963 and the reasons they gave for not working were as follows:

	Women not in the labor force	
	Number	*Percent*
Total	36, 430, 000	100. 0
Household responsibilities	26, 427, 000	72. 5
Attending school	5, 205, 000	14. 3
Illness	2, 156, 000	5. 9
Could not find work	552, 000	1. 5
All other reasons	2, 090, 000	5. 7

Of the 36.4 million women who did not work in 1963, 22.8 million, or 63 percent, were 20 to 64 years of age. Their main reason for not working was home responsibilities. In contrast, 89 percent of the 5.6 million teenage girls who did not work gave going to school as their reason for not working, while 14 percent of the 8.1 million women 65 years of age and over without work experience indicated illness or disability as the reason for not working.

A more practical estimate of the supply of women actually available for increasing the Nation's work force would exclude teenagers and young adults who are attending school, mothers of young children, and elderly women who may not be able to work because of illness or disability. Even if these groups are excluded, the number of women in the labor reserve exceeds that of men—making women the largest single source for labor force expansion.

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[33] Special Labor Force Report No. 48. Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor.

2

WOMEN'S EMPLOYMENT BY OCCUPATIONS AND INDUSTRIES

Principal Occupations of Women

The considerable rise in women's employment in recent years has been accompanied by an increase in the number and variety of women's occupational opportunities. Although women are still concentrated in relatively few occupations, the number in new fields of employment is expanding. In fact, women were reported in all of the 479 individual occupations listed in the 1960 decennial census. To many women some of these occupations would not be attractive or suitable. Nevertheless, women were found working as blasters and powdermen, boilermakers, longshoremen and stevedores, roofers and slaters, and locomotive firemen and engineers, to name just a few.

Occupations of persons in the labor force may be classified according to the type of work performed or by broad occupational categories. Both are significant in any discussion of the current employment of women and the shifts in women's working patterns.

42. *Type of Work*

The wide disparity between the concentration of women and men workers by type of work has contributed to the difference in their earnings, in the rate of growth of their employment, and in the relative number working part time or part year. Of the 24.6 million women employed in April 1965, 14.1 million, or almost three-fifths, were employed in white-collar jobs (table 40). Another one-fourth were in service work. Of the remainder, 4.1 million were blue-collar workers, and about 675,000 were farm workers. In contrast, almost one-half of the men were employed in blue-collar work, and two-fifths were in white-collar jobs. The remainder were about equally divided between farm work and service work.

The fact that 24 percent of the women and only 7 percent of the men were employed in service work means that women are concen-

trated in the low-paying jobs typical of this type of work. In recent decades employment has risen at a more rapid rate in white-collar and service work than in any other type of work. Since 81 percent of all women work in these types of jobs, women's employment has increased faster than men's. The employment of a relatively large segment of all women workers in service work and in certain kinds of white-collar work—jobs that are often part time or part year—accounts to some extent for the fact that women are more likely than men are to work less than a full week or less than a full year.

Table 40.—Employment, by Sex and Type of Work, 1940, 1950, and 1965 [1]

(Persons 14 years of age and over)

Sex and type of work	Number (in thousands)			Percent distribution		
	1965	1950	1940	1965	1950	1940
Women	24,648	17,176	11,920	100.0	100.0	100.0
White-collar work	14,066	8,858	5,380	57.1	51.6	45.1
Blue-collar work	4,053	3,464	2,400	16.4	20.2	20.1
Service work	5,854	3,939	3,450	23.8	22.9	28.9
Farm work	674	916	690	2.7	5.3	5.8
Men	46,422	41,492	34,180	100.0	100.0	100.0
White-collar work	18,022	13,522	9,710	38.8	32.6	28.4
Blue-collar work	21,730	19,108	14,390	46.8	46.1	42.1
Service work	3,208	2,757	2,160	6.9	6.6	6.3
Farm work	3,463	6,104	7,920	7.5	14.7	23.2

[1] Data are for April of each year.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, and U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

Changes in women's employment since 1940.—The proportion of all women workers engaged in white-collar work was larger in 1965 than in 1940—reaching more than one-half by 1950. On the other hand, the proportion engaged in blue-collar work declined from 20 to 16 percent; in service work, from 29 to 24 percent. And the proportion who were farm workers was cut in half. Among men, the biggest changes were an increase in the proportion engaged in white-collar work and a tremendous drop in both the number and the proportion employed as farm workers.

43. Major Occupational Groups

The occupations of persons in the labor force are divided into 11 broad categories in monthly employment figures collected by the Bu-

reau of the Census and published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. More women (32 percent) were employed in clerical work in April 1965 than in any other major occupational group (table 41). The next largest group was service workers (except private-household), followed by operatives. Professional workers were the fourth largest group, with private-household, sales, and managerial workers following in that order. The remaining group (about 4 percent) included farm workers, craftsmen, and nonfarm laborers.

Table 41.—Major Occupational Groups and Selected Occupations of Employed Women, April 1965

(Women 14 years of age and over)

Major occupational group or selected occupation	*Number (in thousands)*	*Percent distribution*	*As percent of total employed*
Total	24,648	100.0	34.7
Professional, technical, kindred workers	[1] 3,323	13.5	37.4
Medical, other health workers	933	3.8	61.0
Teachers (except college)	1,381	5.6	69.2
Managers, officials, proprietors (except farm)	1,106	4.5	14.8
Clerical, kindred workers	[1] 7,756	31.5	69.9
Stenographers, typists, secretaries	2,749	11.2	98.2
Sales workers	[1] 1,881	7.6	40.6
Retail trade	1,659	6.7	57.8
Craftsmen, foremen, kindred workers	281	1.1	3.2
Operatives, kindred workers	[1] 3,656	14.8	27.7
Durable goods manufacturing	980	4.0	23.0
Nondurable goods manufacturing	1,896	7.7	51.9
Laborers (except farm, mine)	116	.5	3.2
Private-household workers	2,025	8.2	97.5
Service workers (except private-household)	[1] 3,829	15.5	54.8
Waitresses, cooks, bartenders	1,385	5.6	72.2
Farmers, farm managers	140	.6	6.0
Farm laborers, foremen	534	2.2	29.5
Paid workers	124	.5	11.8
Unpaid family workers	410	1.7	53.9

[1] Includes women in occupations not shown separately in this category.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Employment and Earnings, May 1965.

Women's employment has expanded in nearly all of the major occupational groups since 1940. The greatest growth has been in the number of women clerical workers—from 2.5 million in 1940 to

7.8 million in 1965, a threefold increase (table 42). The rising demand for clerical workers has resulted from the remarkable expansion of business and industry, the development of all types of services to the community, and the burgeoning activity of government at all levels—local, State, and Federal. The clerical workers of 1965, however, differ in many respects from the clerical workers of 1940. The application of technological developments to many clerical jobs has raised the level of skill required and the educational training needed. Opportunities for unskilled workers have narrowed, and there is an increasing demand for workers with the broad education and training that allow for flexibility.

Outstanding expansion has likewise occurred among women service workers (except private-household). Sixteen percent of all women workers are now engaged in a service occupation as compared with 13 percent in 1950 and 11 percent in 1940. There have been many reasons for the tremendous growth in women's employment in service occupations. Included among these are the increase in the population, especially among older people who require more medical care and other services, and the building of many new restaurants, hotels, and motels with the accompanying need for maids, waitresses, cooks, kitchen workers, and other service personnel.

About 3.7 million women worked as operatives, and 3.3 million as professional and technical workers in April 1965. But the rate of growth, especially since 1950, in these two major occupational groups varied widely. The increase of 1.5 million among professional women over the 15-year period illustrates the rising demand for workers with higher educational achievement or specialized skills. On the other hand, the addition of only 440,000 among women operatives demonstrates the dwindling demand for workers with less skill and little formal training, as recent technological developments permit increased production of goods without a commensurate rise in employment.

The relative importance of four other major occupational groups has declined since 1940. Although the number of women employed as private-household workers increased between 1950 and 1965 after dropping between 1940 and 1950, they represented only 8 percent of all women workers in 1965 as compared with 18 percent in 1940. The number of women employed in two other major occupational groups—farmers and farm managers and farm laborers and foremen—actually decreased between 1940 and 1965.

Occupational differences between women and men.—The major occupational groups in which women are concentrated differ from

Table 42.—Major Occupational Groups of Employed Women, 1940, 1950, and 1965 [1]

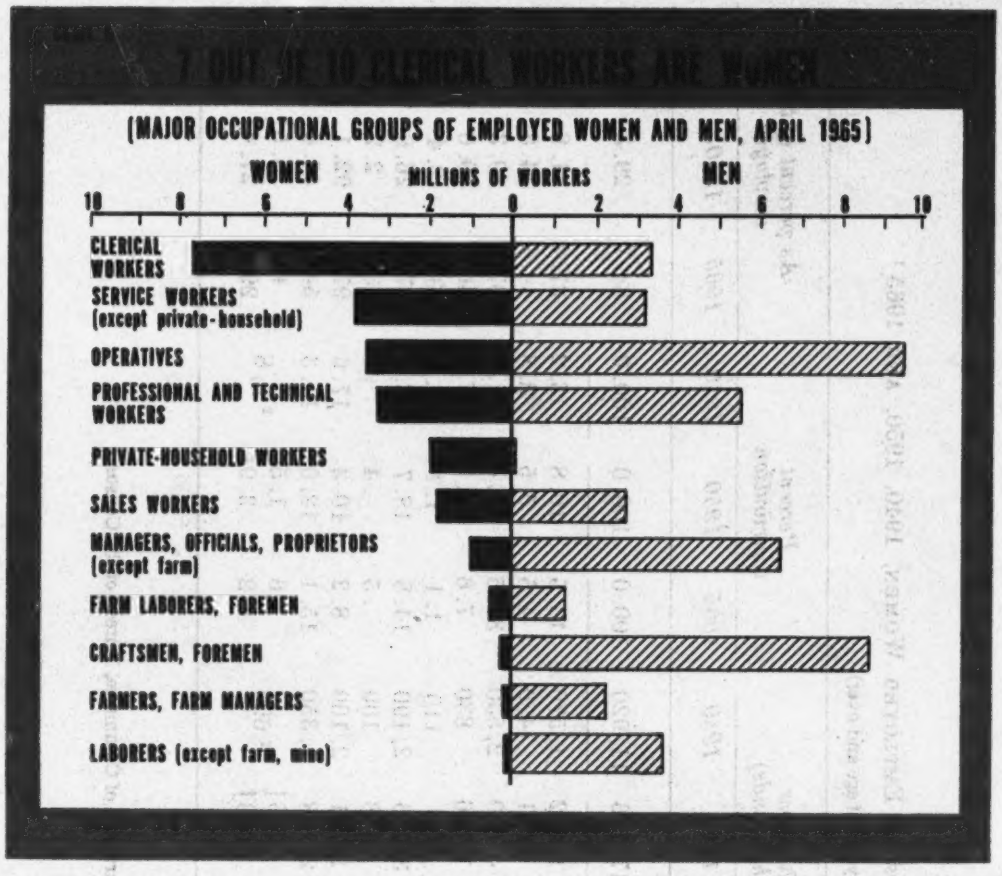
(Women 14 years of age and over)

Major occupational group	Number (in thousands)			Percent distribution			As percent of total employed		
	1965	1950	1940	1965	1950	1940	1965	1950	1940
Total	24,648	17,176	11,920	100.0	100.0	100.0	34.7	29.3	25.9
Professional, technical, kindred workers	3,323	1,862	1,570	13.5	10.8	13.2	37.4	41.8	45.4
Managers, officials, proprietors (except farm)	1,106	941	450	4.5	5.5	3.8	14.8	14.8	11.7
Clerical, kindred workers	7,756	4,539	2,530	31.5	26.4	21.2	69.9	59.3	52.6
Sales workers	1,881	1,516	830	7.6	8.8	7.0	40.6	39.0	27.9
Craftsmen, foremen, kindred workers	281	181	110	1.1	1.1	.9	3.2	2.4	2.1
Operatives, kindred workers	3,656	3,215	2,190	14.8	18.7	18.4	27.7	26.9	25.7
Laborers (except farm, mine)	116	68	100	.5	.4	.8	3.2	2.2	3.2
Private-household workers	2,025	1,771	2,100	8.2	10.3	17.6	97.5	92.1	93.8
Service workers (except private-household)	3,829	2,168	1,350	15.1	12.6	11.3	54.8	45.4	40.1
Farmers, farm managers	140	253	[2] 690	.6	1.5	[2] 5.8	6.0	5.5	[2] 8.0
Farm laborers, foremen	534	663		2.2	3.9		29.5	27.4	

[1] Data are for April of each year.

[2] Not reported separately prior to 1950.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, and U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.



those of men (chart N). In contrast to the predominance of clerical workers among women, almost 40 percent of all men workers were about evenly divided between craftsmen and operatives in April 1965. In addition, a larger proportion of all men workers than of women were employed as nonfarm managers, nonfarm laborers, and farm workers. On the other hand, a relatively larger proportion of women than of men had jobs in sales work, private-household work, and service work outside the home.

44. *Proportion of Workers Who Are Women*

The diversity in the employment of men and women is again illustrated by the varying proportions women are of all workers in the different major occupational groups. As might be expected, women accounted for nearly all private-household workers in 1965 (table 41). They also predominated among clerical workers—holding 70 percent of these jobs. In only one other major occupational group—service workers (except private-household)—did women make up more than half of all workers. However, the proportions that women

were of all professional and technical workers (37 percent) and sales workers (41 percent) exceeded the average for all occupations (35 percent). At the other end of the scale, women held relatively few of the jobs as craftsmen, nonfarm laborers, and farmers and farm managers.

The rise in women's representation among all workers from 26 percent in 1940 to 35 percent in 1965 was not spread equally among the major occupational groups. A large gain occurred among clerical workers—from 53 to 70 percent. Above-average advances were also found in the proportion that women were of all service workers (except private-household) and sales workers. On the other hand, there was a significant decline in the proportion that women were of all professional and technical workers from 45 percent in 1940 and 42 percent in 1950 to 37 percent in 1965. Although the number of women employed in professional and technical occupations rose sharply over the 25-year period, men moved into these occupations at a much more rapid pace, and as a result women's representation among all workers dropped. After World War II and the Korean conflict, many men were able to attend institutions of higher learning under the veterans' benefit programs and thus qualified for professional openings. Moreover, many of the new professional positions were in science and engineering—fields in which women constitute only a small minority.

Detailed Occupations of Women

The principal source of information on the detailed occupations of employed persons is the decennial census. The latest census showed that in 1960, as in previous census years, women were concentrated in a relatively small number of occupations. Nearly one-fourth of all employed women were secretaries, saleswomen in retail trade, private-household workers (n.e.c.), and teachers in elementary schools. In each of the top three of these occupations more than a million women were employed. About one-third of all working women were in seven occupations—the four listed previously and bookkeeper, waitress, and professional nurse. In fact, nearly two-thirds of the 21.2 million women employed in 1960 were in 36 individual occupations, each of which engaged 100,000 or more women (table 43). About two-fifths of these occupations were white collar, one-fourth were manual, and the remainder were service. The list includes four professional occupations—teacher in elementary schools, teacher in secondary schools, professional nurse, and musician and music teacher.

Table 43.—Detailed Occupations in Which 100,000 or More Women Were Employed, 1960

(Women 14 years of age and over)

Occupation	Number	As percent of total employed
Secretaries	1,423,352	97
Saleswomen (retail trade)	1,397,364	54
Private-household workers (n.e.c.)	1,162,683	96
Teachers (elementary school)	860,413	86
Bookkeepers	764,054	84
Waitresses	714,827	87
Nurses (professional)	567,884	98
Sewers and stitchers (mfg.)	534,258	94
Typists	496,735	95
Cashiers	367,954	78
Cooks (except private-household)	361,772	64
Telephone operators	341,797	96
Babysitters	319,735	98
Attendants (hospitals and other institutions)	288,268	74
Laundry and drycleaning operatives	277,396	72
Assemblers	270,769	44
Operatives (apparel and accessories)	270,619	75
Hairdressers and cosmetologists	267,050	89
Packers and wrappers (n.e.c.)	262,935	60
Stenographers	258,554	96
Teachers (secondary school)	243,452	47
Office machine operators	227,849	74
Checkers, examiners, and inspectors (mfg.)	215,066	45
Practical nurses	197,115	96
Kitchen workers (n.e.c.) (except private-household)	179,796	59
Chambermaids and maids (except private-household)	162,433	98
Housekeepers (private-household)	143,290	99
Operatives (electrical machinery, equipment, and supplies)	138,001	48
Receptionists	131,142	98
Charwomen and cleaners	122,728	68
Housekeepers and stewardesses (except private-household)	117,693	81
Dressmakers and seamstresses (except factory)	115,252	97
Counter and fountain workers	112,547	71
File clerks	112,323	86
Musicians and music teachers	109,638	57
Operatives (yarn, thread, and fabric mills)	103,399	44

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: "U.S. Census of Population: 1960. Detailed Characteristics, U.S. Summary, PC(1)—1D." 1963.

The number of occupations in which 100,000 or more women were employed had increased since 1950, when there were only 29. The seven occupations added during the decade were babysitter, charwoman and cleaner, counter and fountain worker, file clerk, housekeeper and stewardess (except private-household), musician and music teacher, and receptionist. Nearly all of these jobs were for clerical workers or for service workers (except private-household)—the two major occupational groups in which the number of employed women had increased the most since 1950.

Another measure of the major occupations of women is an examination of those in which women were three-fourths or more of all workers. In more than half of the 36 occupations in which 100,000 or more women were employed, at least 3 out of 4 workers were women; in at least one-third, 9 out of 10 were women. Table 44 shows the detailed occupations in which 75 percent or more of all workers were women in 1960.

45. Women in Professional Occupations

There were 3.3 million women—1 out of 7 employed women—in professional and technical occupations in April 1965. About 1.5 million more women were engaged in professional or technical work in 1965 than in 1950, and almost 1.8 million more than in 1940. The sharp rise in the number of women professional workers, especially since 1950, may be attributed to a variety of social and economic developments of the period. The tremendous need for better educated workers, as well as the sizable increase in the population, stimulated the expansion of educational systems and facilities. The continuing concern for the health of all, and especially of older people as the lifespan increases, resulted in enlarged medical facilities and expanded health programs. The growth of business and industrial firms and of government operations increased the need for accountants and personnel workers. The large increase in the number of young people in the population and a growing awareness of their special needs brought about an expansion in services, both public and private, to youth.

Teaching continues to be the most popular profession among women. The 1,381,000 women teachers (except college) in April 1965 equaled 42 percent of all professional women, according to the monthly report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. This number of women teachers (considerably above the 768,000 recorded in the 1940 census and the 839,000 in 1950) gives some indication of the rapid expansion of of our educational systems. Seven out of 10 of the women teachers

Table 44.—Occupations in Which Women Were Three-fourths or More of Total Employed, 1960

Occupations with 100,000 or more women	*Occupations with less than 100,000 women*
WOMEN WERE 90 PERCENT OR MORE OF TOTAL EMPLOYED	
Housekeepers (private-household)	Nurses (student)
Nurses (professional)	Laundresses (private-household)
Receptionists	Attendants (physicians' and dentists' offices)
Babysitters	Dietitians and nutritionists
Chambermaids and maids (except private-household)	Demonstrators
Secretaries	Milliners
Dressmakers and seamstresses (except factory)	
Private-household workers (n.e.c.)	
Telephone operators	
Stenographers	
Practical nurses	
Typists	
Sewers and stitchers (mfg.)	
WOMEN WERE 80 TO 89 PERCENT OF TOTAL EMPLOYED	
Hairdressers and cosmetologists	Boarding and lodging house keepers
Waitresses	Librarians
Teachers (elementary school)	
File clerks	
Bookkeepers	
Housekeepers and stewardesses (except private-household)	
WOMEN WERE 75 TO 79 PERCENT OF TOTAL EMPLOYED	
Cashiers	Spinners (textile)
Operatives (apparel and accessories)	Dancers and dancing teachers
	Attendants and assistants (library)
	Operatives (knitting mills)
	Midwives

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: "U.S. Census of Population: 1960. Detailed Characteristics, U.S. Summary, PC(1)—1D." 1963.

employed at the time of the 1960 census were in elementary education; 2 out of 10 taught in secondary schools.

The number of women teaching in junior high and high schools has not increased as rapidly as has the number of men. There has been a concerted and fairly successful effort to attract more men into this profession. As a result, women were less than half of all secondary school teachers in 1960, after being in the majority in 1950.

Some characteristics of public school teachers in March 1963 were obtained in a special survey made by the National Education Asso-

ciation.[1] Although men were in the majority in secondary schools, about two-thirds of all teachers were women. Two-thirds of the women teachers were married, about one-tenth were widowed or divorced, and the rest were single. The average age of women teachers was 41.9 years. In fact, only 42 percent were under 40 years of age. Women teachers, on the whole, were somewhat older and had less education than their male counterparts. Fifteen percent of all women teachers, but only 3 percent of the men, held less than a bachelor's degree. At the other end of the scale, only 19 percent of the women teachers, compared with 37 percent of the men, had obtained a master's or other advanced degree. About half of all the teachers in the sample had taught less than 10 years.

Another large group of professional women are employed as medical and other health workers (the only other category of professional workers for whom employment figures are reported regularly by the Bureau of Labor Statistics). In April 1965 they numbered 933,000 and were over one-fourth of all women professional workers. The largest single occupation in this group is that of professional nurse: a total of 567,884 women were employed as professional nurses at the time of the 1960 decennial census. Another important occupation in this group is medical or dental technician. More than 86,000 women worked as technicians in laboratories, hospitals, clinics, and physicians' or dentists' offices in 1960—twice as many as in 1950. Other women medical and health workers employed in 1960 were student nurses (56,540), dietitians and nutritionists (24,237), therapists (19,752), and physicians and surgeons (15,513).

Women also hold a wide variety of professional jobs outside the teaching and health fields. In 1960 relatively large numbers of women were musicians and music teachers, accountants and auditors, social and welfare workers, librarians, and editors and reporters. Moreover, the growing diversity of women's employment in professional positions is illustrated by the fact that in at least five additional occupations the number of employed women doubled or more than doubled between 1950 and 1960: mathematician, personnel and labor relations worker, public relations worker and publicity writer, recreation and group worker, and sports instructor and official. On the other hand, women hold only a small proportion of the positions as engineers, technicians (other than medical and dental), and scientists, despite the numerous job openings created by the tremendous interest in research and development.

[1] "Characteristics of Public-School Teachers." Research Bulletin, Vol. 41, No. 4. National Education Association. December 1963.

46. Women Proprietors, Officials, Managers

More than 1 million women were employed as proprietors, managers, and officials (except farm) in April 1965. This group of women workers had more than doubled in number since 1940, with most of the increase occurring prior to 1950. However, this is a relatively small occupational group for women; they are still outnumbered by men 7 to 1.

Three-fifths of the women employed in this major occupational group in 1965 were salaried workers. (In contrast, at the time of the 1950 census only about half of the women managers or proprietors were salaried workers.) Many small individually owned enterprises have been replaced in recent years by supermarkets, large discount houses, and branch operations of large companies, thus limiting opportunities for the individual proprietor.

At the time of the 1960 census about two-thirds of the self-employed women were proprietors in retail trade, operating mainly eating and drinking places, food and dairy product stores, and apparel and accessories stores. Another large group operated establishments offering personal services. Many of the salaried managers were likewise in retail trade and personal services; others worked as buyers and department heads in stores, officials in public administration, managers and superintendents in buildings, and postmasters. The employment of both women and men managers and proprietors has been expanding rapidly in the fields of banking and other finance, insurance and real estate, and business services.

47. Women in Clerical Occupations

Of the nearly 7.8 million women employed in April 1965 as clerical and kindred workers—the largest occupational group for women—2,749,000, or over one-third, were stenographers, typists, or secretaries. (This was considerably above the number employed in these occupations at the time of the 1960 census (2,179,000) and the 1950 census (1,508,000).) The growth of business and industry, of all kinds of services, and of government operations has brought a rising demand for workers in these occupations to handle correspondence, interoffice communications, and other forms of paperwork. On the other hand, the number of women employed to handle communications other than by mail remained almost unchanged between 1950 and 1960. Thus there were about 342,000 women telephone operators at the time of both the 1950 and 1960 censuses, although the number almost doubled between 1940 and 1950. The installation of automatic dialing equip-

ment permitted the telephone industry to expand its services without increasing the number of operators.[2]

Another large group of women clerical workers are bookkeepers. The number of women bookkeepers increased by over 200,000 between 1950 and 1960—to a total of 764,000, according to the 1960 census. These additional bookkeepers were employed mainly in retail trade, professional and related services, and finance, insurance, and real estate. The rapid expansion of these industries also brought about increases in women's employment as cashiers, bank tellers, bill and account collectors, and insurance adjusters, examiners, and investigators. The rise in women's employment as bank tellers was particularly striking—a better than threefold increase between 1950 and 1960. In fact, women's employment in this occupation increased more rapidly than did men's; and as a result 7 out of 10 bank tellers in 1960 were women compared with less than 5 out of 10 in 1950. Other clerical occupations in which women's employment doubled or more than doubled between 1950 and 1960 were library attendant and assistant, payroll and timekeeping clerk, receptionist, stock clerk and storekeeper, and ticket, station, and express agent.[3]

48. Women in Service Occupations

The second largest group of employed women (3.8 million) in April 1965 were service workers (except private-household). More than 1 out of 3 of these were waitresses, cooks, and bartenders. (The 1.4 million women working in these occupations in 1965 exceeded the 1.1 million similarly employed at the time of the 1960 census and the 800,000 in 1950. Of the women in these occupations in 1960, about 2 out of 3 were waitresses.) Many more workers have been needed to prepare and serve food in new and expanding restaurants and other eating and drinking places as personal incomes rise and as more women work outside the home. Most of these jobs have been filled by women, since employment is often part time or part year. If kitchen workers (180,000) and counter or fountain workers (113,000) are added to waitresses, cooks, and bartenders (1,096,000), about half of all women service workers in 1960 were employed in occupations associated with the preparation and serving of food.

Two other large groups of women service workers at the time of the 1960 census were in the health field—attendants in hospitals and

[2] For further information on women in the telephone industry, see "Women Telephone Workers and Changing Technology." Bull. 286. Women's Bureau, U.S. Department of Labor. 1963.

[3] For further information on clerical occupations, see "Clerical Occupations for Women—Today and Tomorrow." Bull. 289. Women's Bureau, U.S. Department of Labor. 1964.

other institutions (288,268) and practical nurses (197,115). The construction and expansion of hospitals, nursing homes, mental institutions, and other health facilities brought an increasing demand for workers in these occupations. Here again, most of the new openings have been filled by women. As a result, the number of attendants in hospitals and other institutions had more than doubled since 1950, and the number of women practical nurses increased by one-half.

One service occupation in which the rise in the employment of women has been outstanding, even though the numbers are small, is that of crossing watchman and bridgetender. Although most protective service workers are men, women's employment in this occupation increased from 5 percent of all workers in 1950 to 46 percent in 1960 (a numerical increase from 458 to 11,575). In 1960 nearly all these women were in local public administration. About 9 out of 10 were employed less than 30 hours a week, most of them probably as school crossing guards before and after school hours and at lunch time.

In addition, large groups of women workers were employed in personal services as hairdressers and cosmetologists; in housekeeping services as chambermaids, maids, housekeepers, and stewards; and in building and custodial services as charwomen, cleaners, janitors, and sextons.

Occupations by Selected Characteristics

49. Occupations of Women by Marital Status

The occupations of women vary to some extent with their marital status. More women were employed in clerical work than in any other major occupational group in March 1964, whether they were single, married (husband present), or with other marital status (table 45). But the concentration of women in this occupational group differs according to their marital status. Thus a larger proportion of all single women (40 percent) than of either married women (30 percent) or women with other marital status (25 percent) were clerical workers. There are several reasons for the larger proportion of single women in clerical jobs. Many are under 25 years of age and completed their education with high school. Thus they often hold low-paying entry jobs that require little training or experience. Moreover, many single girls prefer clerical work because it is usually full time the year round.

Table 45.—Major Occupational Groups of Employed Women, by Marital Status, March 1964

(Women 14 years of age and over)

Major occupational group	Total	Marital status		
		Single	Married (husband present)	Other [1]
Number	23,786,000	5,366,000	13,626,000	4,794,000
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Professional, technical, kindred workers	13.1	16.2	13.3	9.0
Managers, officials, proprietors (except farm)	4.9	2.1	5.6	5.9
Clerical, kindred workers	31.2	39.6	30.2	24.6
Sales workers	7.1	4.5	8.2	7.1
Operatives, kindred workers	15.1	9.2	17.3	15.6
Private-household workers	9.6	14.7	5.5	15.5
Service workers (except private-household)	15.4	11.1	15.8	19.2
Other [2]	3.5	2.5	4.1	3.0

[1] Widowed, divorced, or separated or husband absent for other reasons.

[2] Includes craftsmen, farm workers, and laborers.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 50.

Another large proportion of the single women (16 percent) were employed in professional and technical occupations. Unmarried women who recently have completed college or graduate work often qualify for these positions more easily than do older married women workers who lack continuity in job experience. However, more married women are beginning to qualify for and to obtain professional positions, especially in fields where shortages exist. As a result, in March 1964, 13 percent of all married women workers were in professional and technical occupations.

Two other major occupational groups—operatives and service workers (except private-household)—each accounted for about one-sixth of all married women workers. Many operative occupations pay relatively well and at the same time require little or no previous work experience. Moreover, married women who prefer part-time work or work conveniently located near their homes often find such opportunities in service occupations.

Among women who were widowed, divorced, or with husband absent, the largest group after clerical workers were in service work

outside the home (19 percent). Many of these were older women who did not have the skills and training required in other types of jobs or who, because of financial need, had to take whatever jobs were available. In addition, large groups of women with other marital status were operatives (16 percent) and private-household workers (16 percent).

Just as married women (husband present) constituted well over one-half of all women workers in March 1964, they were also well over one-half of the workers in each of the major occupational groups, with the exception of private-household workers (table 46). In this group they were only one-third of the total. Especially high proportions of married women workers were in three occupational groups: sales workers, operatives, and nonfarm managers, officials, and proprietors. Many married women prefer part-time employment and thus take jobs as saleswomen; other married women work as salaried managers, especially in retail outlets, or as self-employed proprietors in their own or a family business.

Table 46.—Marital Status of Employed Women, by Major Occupational Group, March 1964

(Women 14 years of age and over)

Major occupational group	Number	Percent distribution by marital status			
		Total	Single	Married (husband present)	Other [1]
Total	23,786,000	100.0	22.6	57.3	20.2
Professional, technical, kindred workers	3,193,000	100.0	27.9	58.2	13.8
Managers, officials, proprietors (except farm)	1,133,000	100.0	9.7	65.8	24.4
Clerical, kindred workers	7,443,000	100.0	28.6	55.5	15.9
Sales workers	1,669,000	100.0	14.2	65.8	20.0
Operatives, kindred workers	3,593,000	100.0	13.7	65.5	20.8
Private-household workers	2,242,000	100.0	34.6	32.8	32.6
Service workers (except private-household)	3,665,000	100.0	16.2	58.7	25.1
Other [2]	851,000	100.0	16.0	66.8	17.2

[1] Widowed, divorced, or separated or husband absent for other reasons.
[2] Includes craftsmen, farm workers, and laborers.

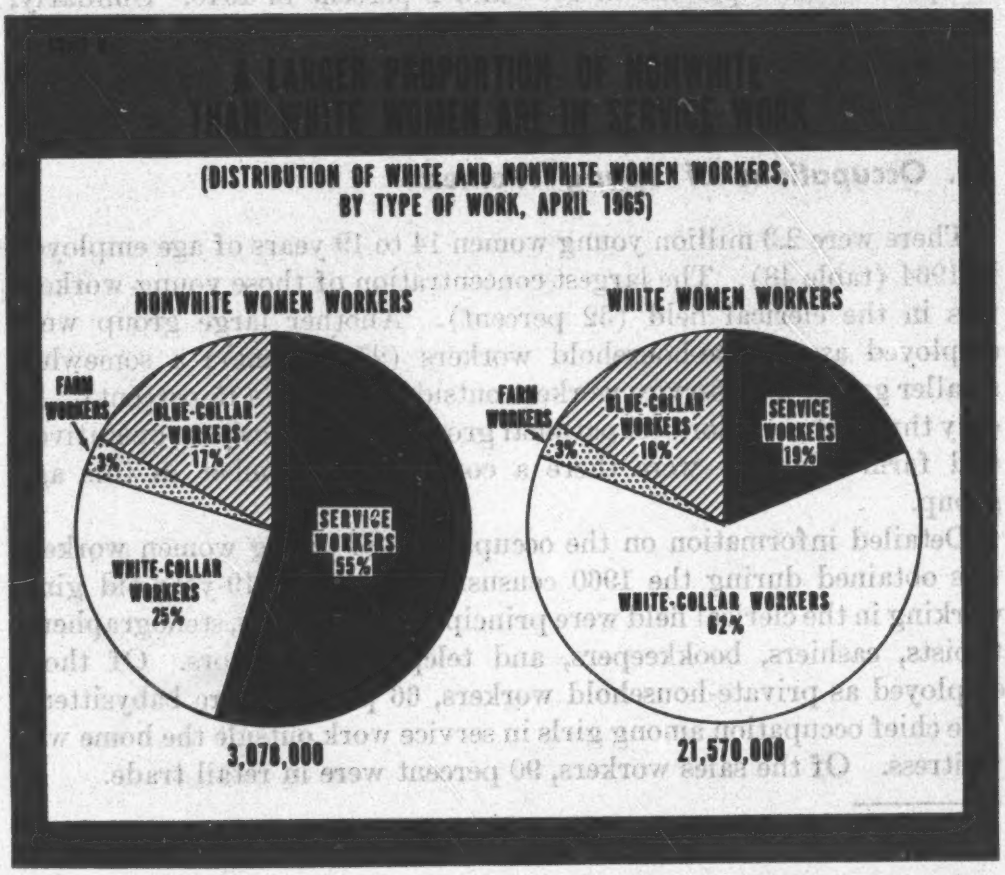
Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 50.

50. Occupations of Nonwhite Women [4]

Of the 26.1 million women in the civilian labor force in April 1965, 3.4 million were nonwhite. They represented 45 percent of all nonwhite women 14 years of age or over in the population. Of the nonwhite women in the labor force, 3,078,000 were employed and 307,000 were unemployed. Thus about 1 out of every 10 nonwhite women in the labor force was looking for work. Moreover, 4 out of 10 employed nonwhite women worked less than 35 hours a week.

These characteristics of nonwhite women workers are interrelated with the types of jobs they hold. Whereas 3 out of 5 white women workers were engaged in white-collar work in April 1965, almost 3 out of 5 nonwhite women were in service work (chart O). Since service work is often intermittent or part time, this tends to influence the nature of nonwhite women's employment. In contrast, approximately the same proportions of both white and nonwhite women were employed in blue-collar work or farm work in that month.

[4] For further information on the occupations of nonwhite women workers, see "Negro Women Workers in 1960," Bull. 287. Women's Bureau, U.S. Department of Labor. 1963.



Nonwhite women constituted about 1 out of 8 women workers in April 1965. Consequently, they were only a small proportion of all women workers in most major occupational groups. However, more than 2 out of 5 private-household workers and 1 out of 5 service workers (except private-household) were nonwhite. In addition, almost 1 out of 3 paid women farm laborers or foremen was nonwhite.

Nonwhite women are concentrated in certain major occupational groups as they are in certain types of work. Thus about one-third of all nonwhite women were employed as private-household workers in April 1965 (table 47). Another one-fourth were employed as service workers outside the home. The third largest group of nonwhite women workers was operatives (471,000), followed by clerical workers (397,000). But nonwhite women's employment was much more diversified in 1965 than in 1940, when three-fifths of all employed nonwhite women were private-household workers. World War II stimulated their entry into many new kinds of jobs—particularly clerical, sales, professional, and service. As a result, 15 percent of all nonwhite women were employed in clerical or sales work in 1965 compared with 6 percent in 1950 and 2 percent in 1940. Similarly, 9 percent of the nonwhite women workers in 1965 were in professional and technical occupations compared with 6 percent in 1950 and 4 percent in 1940.[5]

51. Occupations of Young Women

There were 2.3 million young women 14 to 19 years of age employed in 1964 (table 48). The largest concentration of those young workers was in the clerical field (32 percent). Another large group were employed as private-household workers (27 percent); a somewhat smaller group were service workers outside the home (15 percent). In only three other major occupational groups—sales workers, operatives, and farm laborers—were there a considerable number in this age group.

Detailed information on the occupations of young women workers was obtained during the 1960 census. The 14- to 19-year-old girls working in the clerical field were principally secretaries, stenographers, typists, cashiers, bookkeepers, and telephone operators. Of those employed as private-household workers, 66 percent were babysitters. The chief occupation among girls in service work outside the home was waitress. Of the sales workers, 90 percent were in retail trade.

[5] Data for 1940 and 1950 are from the decennial censuses.

Table 47.—Major Occupational Groups and Selected Occupations of Employed Nonwhite Women, April 1965

(Nonwhite women 14 years of age and over)

Major occupational group or selected occupation	*Number*	*Percent distribution*	*As percent of total employed women*
Total	3,078,000	100.0	12.5
Professional, technical, kindred workers	[1] 268,000	8.7	8.1
Medical, other health workers	62,000	2.0	6.6
Teachers (except college)	160,000	5.2	11.6
Managers, officials, proprietors (except farm)	49,000	1.6	4.4
Clerical, kindred workers	[1] 397,000	12.9	5.1
Stenographers, typists, secretaries	92,000	3.0	3.3
Sales workers	[1] 65,000	2.1	3.5
Retail trade	58,000	1.9	3.5
Craftsmen, foremen, kindred workers	15,000	.5	5.3
Operatives, kindred workers	[1] 471,000	15.3	12.9
Durable goods manufacturing	89,000	2.9	9.1
Nondurable goods manufacturing	172,000	5.6	9.1
Laborers (except farm, mine)	22,000	.7	19.0
Private-household workers	920,000	29.9	45.4
Service workers (except private-household)	[1] 782,000	25.4	20.4
Waitresses, cooks, bartenders	185,000	6.0	13.4
Farmers, farm managers	15,000	.5	10.7
Farm laborers, foremen	74,000	2.4	13.9
Paid workers	39,000	1.3	32.3
Unpaid family workers	35,000	1.2	9.0

[1] Includes women in occupations not shown separately in this category.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Employment and Earnings, May 1965.

Another measure of the types of jobs held by teenage girls is their representation among all employed women in the various major occupational groups. Thus, although girls 14 to 19 years of age accounted for less than 10 percent of all employed women, they were 27 percent of private-household workers, 16 percent of nonfarm laborers, and 17 percent of farm laborers and foremen. On the other hand, they were only a very small proportion of managers, both farm and other, and of professional and technical workers.

Table 48.—Major Occupational Groups of Employed Girls 14 to 19 Years of Age, 1964

Major occupational group	*Number*	*Percent distribution*	*As percent of total employed women*
Total	2,316,000	100.0	9.6
Professional, technical, kindred workers	60,000	2.6	1.9
Managers, officials, proprietors (except farm)	7,000	.3	.6
Clerical, kindred workers	747,000	32.4	10.0
Sales workers	214,000	9.3	12.2
Craftsmen, foremen, kindred workers	9,000	.4	3.6
Operatives, kindred workers	168,000	7.3	4.6
Laborers (except farm and mine)	15,000	.7	16.5
Service workers (except private-household)	354,000	15.3	9.5
Private-household workers	618,000	26.8	27.4
Farmers, farm managers	(1)	-------	-------
Farm laborers, foremen	115,000	5.0	16.7

[1] Not available.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 52.

52. Occupations of Mature Women

There were about 9.7 million women 45 years of age and over at work in 1964 (table 49). Of these, about 2.3 million, or 24 percent, were in clerical occupations. These occupations are not as popular for mature women as they are for all women workers generally. The next two largest occupational groups for mature women were service workers employed outside the home (16 percent) and operatives (15 percent). An additional 13 percent were working in professional and technical occupations. In this occupational group, mature women held proportionately as many positions as did women of all ages—a clear indication of the rising demand for workers with higher educational achievement irrespective of their age. In only one other major occupational group—private-household workers— were as many as 10 percent of women 45 years of age and over employed.

Additional information on the types of jobs held by mature women may be obtained by comparing the number of women 45 years of age and over with the total number of employed women in each major occupational group. Thus, although mature women constituted only 40 percent of all employed women in 1964, they were 77 percent of farmers and farm managers and 64 percent of nonfarm managers,

Table 49.—Major Occupational Groups of Employed Women 45 Years of Age and Over, 1964

Major occupational group	*Number*	*Percent distribution*	*As percent of total employed women*
Total	9,709,000	100.0	40.1
Professional, technical, kindred workers	1,274,000	13.1	41.0
Managers, officials, proprietors (except farm)	708,000	7.3	63.8
Clerical, kindred workers	2,326,000	23.9	31.2
Sales workers	838,000	8.6	47.9
Craftsmen, foremen, kindred workers	117,000	1.2	46.8
Operatives, kindred workers	1,499,000	15.4	41.1
Laborers (except farm and mine)	36,000	.4	39.6
Service workers (except private-household)	1,574,000	16.2	42.2
Private-household workers	987,000	10.1	43.7
Farmers, farm managers	102,000	1.0	77.3
Farm laborers, foremen	274,000	2.8	39.8

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 52.

officials, and proprietors. In these two major occupational groups, however, the total number of women employed is small. Women in this age group were nearly half of the craftsmen and foremen (47 percent) and of the sales workers (48 percent). Older and more experienced women workers normally hold many of the jobs in these occupational groups. On the other hand, women 45 years and older were a relatively small proportion of clerical workers (31 percent).

Industry Groups of Women

53. Distribution of Women by Industry

Nearly 98 percent of all employed women 14 years of age and over were working in nonagricultural industries in 1965, and almost two-thirds of these were engaged in the distribution of goods and services (table 50). Among the 10.3 million women providing services, 6 million were employed in professional and related services, such as schools, hospitals, other medical and health facilities, and welfare or religious agencies. About 3.7 million women provided personal services either in private households or in establishments such as

Table 50.—Major Industry Groups of Employed Women, 1940, 1950, and 1965

(Women 14 years of age and over)

Major industry group	Number (in thousands)			Percent distribution			As percent of total employed		
	1965	1950	1940	1965	1950	1940	1965	1950	1940
Total	24,494	16,674	11,920	100.0	100.0	100.0	34.9	29.0	25.9
Agriculture, forestry, fisheries	578	692	533	2.4	4.2	4.5	14.1	10.2	6.2
Mining	24	15	12	.1	.1	.1	4.8	1.8	1.3
Construction	208	68	37	.8	.4	.3	4.9	2.2	1.8
Manufacturing	4,892	3,765	2,540	20.0	22.6	21.3	25.7	25.4	23.2
Transportation, communication, other public utilities	714	663	377	2.9	4.0	3.2	15.5	14.9	11.8
Wholesale trade	470	452	199	1.9	2.7	1.7	19.7	19.3	16.0
Retail trade	4,633	3,403	2,021	18.9	20.4	17.0	42.0	36.2	30.7
Finance, insurance, real estate	1,581	856	497	6.5	5.1	4.2	47.3	42.7	32.5
Services	10,282	6,019	5,334	42.0	36.1	44.7	59.7	55.2	58.6
Business and repair	449	159	84	1.8	1.0	.7	23.6	13.4	9.5
Personal	3,667	3,000	3,145	15.0	18.0	26.4	75.1	70.7	73.2
Entertainment and recreation	142	125	87	.6	.7	.7	29.6	24.4	21.3
Professional and related	6,024	2,735	2,018	24.6	16.4	16.9	60.5	55.2	57.4
Public administration	1,112	743	371	4.5	4.5	3.1	30.0	25.4	20.5

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P-60, Nos. 7 and 47.

hotels, laundries or drycleaners, and beauty shops. The remainder, about 600,000 women, were engaged in business and repair services or recreation and entertainment services. Of the women engaged in the distribution of goods, 4.6 million were employed in retail trade and almost half a million in wholesale trade.

Another 4.9 million, or 20 percent of all employed women, were engaged in manufacturing industries. In only two other industries—finance, insurance, and real estate and public administration—were as many as 1 million women employed.

Changes in women's employment by industry.—Proportionately more women were employed in 1965 than in 1940 in construction; wholesale trade; retail trade; finance, insurance, and real estate; and public administration as these industries expanded with the growing economy. On the other hand, smaller proportions of all employed women were in agriculture; manufacturing; transportation, communication, and other public utilities; and the service industries. Twenty percent of all employed women were in manufacturing in 1965—down from a high of 23 percent in 1950. In the service industries the proportion of women employed in professional and related services rose significantly—from 17 percent in 1940 to 25 percent in 1965—while the percentage in personal services dropped from 26 to 15 percent.

Women as a percent of all workers.—Only in service industries were women more than 50 percent of all workers in 1965. Within this industry group women held 61 percent of all jobs in professional and related services and 75 percent in personal services, compared with only 24 percent in business and repair services and 30 percent in entertainment and recreation services. Women were also well represented among all workers both in retail trade and in finance, insurance, and real estate. In fact, in the latter two industry groups the proportion of all workers who were women rose sharply between 1940 and 1965. About 47 percent of all employees in finance, insurance, and real estate in 1965 were women compared with only 33 percent in 1940. Similarly, 42 percent of the workers in retail trade in 1965 were women compared with 31 percent in 1940.

54. Women as Nonfarm Workers

Women's employment in certain detailed industries is tabulated quarterly by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The figures for women employed in manufacturing have been issued since October 1940 (with a few breaks in continuity). Those for women in selected nonmanufacturing industries date only from January 1960. Because these

figures are based on payroll data, they may differ somewhat from the Bureau of the Census figures.[6]

Factory workers.—More than 4.6 million women were working in manufacturing industries in April 1965 (table 51). They constituted about one-fifth of all employed women and one-fourth of all manufacturing employees. Some of these women worked in factory offices; others were production workers. The relative importance of these two groups varies considerably from industry to industry. In many of the heavy manufacturing industries, less than half of the women employees had production jobs in 1960. In other lighter manufacturing industries, such as apparel and some textile mills, as many as four-fifths of the women were production workers.

Manufacturing industries are divided into those producing durable goods and those producing nondurable goods. Women are more likely to be employed in nondurable than in durable goods. Thus 60 percent of all women in manufacturing in April 1965 were employed in plants producing "soft" goods. Nevertheless, the concentration in this field in April 1965 was not as great as it had been in 1950 (67 percent). Of the women working in industries in the nondurable division, more than 1 million were in apparel and related products. Two other large employers of women were textile mill products and food and kindred products. Despite an overall increase in the number of women employed in the manufacture of nondurable goods since 1950, the number of women workers declined substantially in plants producing textile mill products and tobacco manufactures. In these two industries many processes have been automated.

Women's employment increased considerably more in plants producing durable goods—from 1,245,000 in April 1950 to 1,836,000 in April 1965. One-third of all women employed in durable goods manufacturing in April 1965 were in the electrical equipment and supplies industry. This includes firms manufacturing radio and television sets, telephones, electric lamps, electric measuring instruments, and household appliances.

Nonmanufacturing workers.—Although the Bureau of Labor Statistics survey covers only 70 nonmanufacturing industries, it does include all employees in retail trade, wholesale trade, and finance, insurance, and real estate. In April 1965 there were slightly more women employed in wholesale and retail trade (4.7 million) than in manufacturing (4.4 million) (table 52). Only 710,000 were in wholesale trade. Of the women in retail trade, about 1.3 million were

[6] The two surveys cover different time periods; the Bureau of the Census survey includes the self-employed and unpaid family workers; and the Bureau of Labor Statistics figures may include some duplication in the case of persons employed by more than one firm.

Table 51.—Women in Manufacturing Industries, 1950 and 1965 [1]

(Women 14 years of age and over)

Industry	1965 Number	1965 Percent increase from 1950	Percent distribution 1965	Percent distribution 1950	As percent of total employed 1965	As percent of total employed 1950
Total	4,624,000	23.1	100.0	100.0	26.1	25.9
NONDURABLE GOODS						
Subtotal	2,788,000	11.0	60.3	66.9	37.4	36.6
Apparel and related products	1,064,600	24.0	23.0	22.9	79.5	74.0
Textile mill products	406,700	[2] 23.1	8.8	14.1	44.2	43.3
Food and kindred products	371,100	[2] .4	8.0	9.9	22.7	22.3
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	280,200	37.8	6.1	5.4	28.9	27.4
Leather and leather products	184,800	5.5	4.0	4.7	52.7	46.1
Chemicals and allied products	166,200	46.2	3.6	3.0	18.4	18.0
Rubber and miscellaneous plastic products	132,700	55.6	2.9	2.3	29.4	29.0
Paper and allied products	130,900	16.3	2.8	3.0	20.6	24.0
Tobacco manufactures	34,700	[2] 32.8	.8	1.4	47.1	56.1
Petroleum refining and related industries	16,000	53.8	.3	.3	8.8	5.0
DURABLE GOODS						
Subtotal	1,836,000	47.5	39.7	33.1	17.9	16.4
Electrical equipment and supplies	612,700	82.0	13.3	9.0	37.8	36.0
Machinery (except electrical)	216,400	47.2	4.7	3.9	12.7	12.6
Fabricated metal products	208,100	28.9	4.5	4.3	13.6	17.6
Transportation equipment	167,300	56.4	3.6	2.8	9.6	9.6
Instruments and related products	128,500	66.0	2.8	2.1	34.1	33.0
Stone, clay, glass products	94,000	15.5	2.0	2.2	15.2	15.6
Furniture and fixtures	74,500	30.9	1.6	1.5	17.8	16.1
Primary metal industries	74,100	10.4	1.6	1.8	5.7	5.6
Lumber and wood products (except furniture)	44,100	[2] 17.3	1.0	1.4	7.6	7.0
Ordnance and accessories	41,700	826.7	.9	.1	17.3	16.1
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	174,300	14.3	3.8	4.1	42.4	40.3

[1] Data are for April of each year.

[2] A percent decrease instead of an increase.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Employment and Earnings, July and August 1965, and "Employment and Earnings Statistics for the United States, 1909-64." Bulletin 1312-2 (issued December 1964).

Table 52.—Women in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries, 1960 and 1965[1]

(Women 14 years of age and over)

Industry	1965			
	Number	Percent increase from 1960	As percent of total employed	
			1965	1960
Retail trade	**4,017,000**	**10.3**	**43.5**	**43.3**
General merchandise stores	1,253,200	11.6	69.5	72.3
Eating and drinking places	1,024,700	14.9	55.6	54.4
Food stores	488,600	8.7	33.2	33.2
Apparel and accessories	452,500	2.4	65.4	65.0
Furniture and appliance stores	117,000	1.4	28.7	28.8
Other retail trade	681,400	9.9	22.5	22.2
Finance, insurance, and real estate	**1,479,000**	**11.4**	**49.5**	**50.2**
Banking	465,500	15.2	60.3	61.0
Insurance carriers	429,100	3.9	48.3	50.0
Real estate	198,700	5.3	35.7	36.5
Credit agencies (except banking)	176,400	25.6	53.4	54.4
Insurance agents, brokers, and services	128,600	15.8	55.9	57.2
Security dealers and exchanges	40,400	17.1	31.4	30.5
Other finance, insurance, and real estate	40,200	12.0	50.0	46.5
Wholesale trade	**710,000**	**6.3**	**21.7**	**22.5**
Mining	**34,000**	**[2] 5.6**	**5.5**	**5.0**
Service and miscellaneous:				
Hospitals	1,134,500	25.3	81.1	81.0
Laundries and cleaning and dyeing plants	360,200	5.3	66.4	65.2
Hotels, tourist courts, motels	274,500	16.0	48.0	50.9
Motion pictures	56,700	[2] 14.9	33.0	35.4
Advertising	42,300	14.9	37.7	33.6
Transportation, communication, and other public utilities:				
Communication	430,100	[2] .1	49.5	51.4
Electric, gas, and sanitary services	92,600	[2] .4	15.2	15.2
Motor freight transportation and storage	81,500	11.8	8.5	8.6
Air transportation	52,100	24.9	23.3	21.9
Local and interurban passenger transit	23,500	13.0	8.4	7.2
Pipeline transportation	1,600	[2] 5.9	8.2	7.4

[1] Data are for April of each year.

[2] A percent decrease instead of an increase.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Employment and Earnings, July and August 1965; and "Employment and Earnings Statistics for the United States, 1909-64." Bulletin 1312-2 (issued December 1964).

working in general merchandise stores and 1 million in eating and drinking places. An additional 1.5 million women were employed in finance, insurance, and real estate, mainly in banks and in certain insurance companies.

Among the few service industries surveyed, large numbers of women were employed in hospitals (1,134,500) and in laundries and cleaning and dyeing plants (360,200). Women's employment in hospitals had increased by about one-fourth since 1960, but in laundries and cleaning and dyeing plants was only slightly higher in 1965 than in 1960.

The only industry with more than 100,000 women workers in the transportation and public utilities group surveyed was communications. In April 1965, 430,100 women were working in this industry—about the same number as were employed in 1960.

Women generally constitute a higher proportion of all employees in nonmanufacturing than in manufacturing industries. In April 1965 women held 81 percent of the jobs in hospitals, 70 percent in general merchandise stores, 66 percent in laundries and cleaning and dyeing plants, and 65 percent in apparel and accessories stores. On the other hand, women were only a small proportion of all workers in mining (6 percent), passenger transit (8 percent), motor freight transportation and storage (9 percent), and pipeline transportation (8 percent).

55. Women on Farms

About 4.4 million women—only 6 percent of the women 14 years of age and over in the United States—were estimated to be living on farms in the year centered on April 1964, according to a survey conducted by the Bureau of the Census (table 53). This was 701,000 less than in April 1960 (monthly figure), the earliest date for which comparable figures are available. The migration of the population from farms to towns or urban areas, however, has been a long-term trend, arising partly from the lack of job opportunities in agriculture because of mechanization and other technological advances and partly from the increased opportunities in better paying nonagricultural positions.

In contrast, the number of farm women in the labor force has decreased only slightly since 1960. Moreover, a somewhat larger proportion of all farm women were employed or seeking work in 1964 than in 1960—34 percent compared with 30 percent. On the other hand, the labor-force participation rate of men living on farms has declined from 85 percent in 1960 to 82 percent in 1964.

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Table 53.—Employment Status of Women Living on Farms, 1960 and 1964

(Women 14 years of age and over)

Employment status	Number		Percent distribution	
	1964	1960	1964	1960
Total	4,375,000	5,076,000	100.0	100.0
In the labor force	1,481,000	1,523,000	33.9	30.0
Employed	1,421,000	1,449,000	32.5	28.5
Agriculture	640,000	637,000	14.6	12.5
Nonagriculture	781,000	812,000	17.9	16.0
Unemployed	60,000	74,000	1.4	1.5
Not in the labor force	2,894,000	3,553,000	66.1	70.0

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P-27, No. 35.

Less than half of the 1.4 million employed women residing on farms in 1964 were working in agriculture; a majority of these were unpaid family workers. Another 264,000 women who were nonfarm residents were employed in agriculture in 1964. There is an increasing tendency for agricultural workers to live away from the farm and to commute to work. In fact, nonfarm residents constituted 29 percent of the women employed in agriculture in 1964 compared with 22 percent in April 1960.

More recent figures on employment published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics show there were 735,000 women working in agriculture in April 1965.[7] Of these, 140,000 were farmers and farm managers and 534,000 were farm laborers and foremen. The remainder were performing a variety of clerical, sales, or service operations for agricultural firms. One distinguishing characteristic of these agricultural workers was that they tended to be older than workers in nonagricultural industries. Half of the women employed in farm work in April 1965 were 45 years of age or over, and 7 percent were 65 years of age or over.

The April figures are fairly low for agricultural employment, as the peak periods of farm activity come in late spring and fall. During 1964 women's agricultural employment reached a maximum of 1,243,000 in June and a secondary peak of 1,149,000 in September. Fluctuations in farm employment are much greater than in nonagricultural employment and are one of the primary reasons for the seasonal pattern of the labor force as a whole.

[7] Employment and Earnings, May 1965. Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor.

Women in Public Administration

56. Women in Federal Civilian Service

Legislative branch.—In the legislative branch of the Federal Government, 2 women were in the Senate and 10 were in the House of Representatives in the 89th Congress, the smallest total in years. Congresswomen were about evenly divided between the two political parties.

Judicial branch.—Women occupied the following Federal judgeships by Presidential appointment in 1965: District Courts, two; U.S. Customs Court, one; and U.S. Tax Court, two. In addition, three women were serving in District of Columbia courts by Presidential appointment.

Executive branch, general.—As a result of action initiated by the President's Commission on the Status of Women, on July 23, 1962, the President directed ". . . that the Federal career service be maintained in every respect without discrimination and with equal opportunity for employment and advancement." Agencies were instructed to make appointments and promotions without regard to sex ". . . except in unusual situations where such action has been found justified by the Civil Service Commission on the basis of objective nondiscriminatory standards." Regulations issued by the Civil Service Commission to give effect to this directive provided that the following conditions of employment would *not* of themselves be a basis for permitting exceptions: ". . . travel, including extensive travel, travel in remote areas, or travel with a person or persons of the opposite sex; rotating assignments or other shift work; geographical location, neighborhood environment, or outdoor work; contact with public or a particular group or groups; exposure to weather; living or working facilities, except where the sharing of common living quarters with members of the opposite sex would be required; working with teams or units of opposite sex; monotonous, detailed, or repetitious duties; or limited advancement opportunities."[8] Exceptions are allowed on the basis of physical requirements only when it can be shown that the candidate is not physically able to perform the duties of the specific job in question. In other words, no job is closed to all women because of physical requirements.

At the request of the President's Commission on the Status of Women, in 1963 the Civil Service Commission made a study of the

[8] Report of the Committee on Federal Employment. President's Commission on the Status of Women. October 1963.

relative advancement rates of men and women in the Federal service at grades GS–5 and above. A comparison was made in a number of occupations of the median grades of men and women, by length of service and education. The median grades of women were lower than those of men in each of the occupations studied; the least difference was in the legal field. The educational level was higher for women than for men in all grades GS–7 and above. Full results of this study may be found in the report of the Committee on Federal Employment of the President's Commission on the Status of Women.[9]

The highest ranking women in the executive branch of the Federal service, including the Foreign Service, in June 1965 were in the following positions: Assistant Secretary of Labor for Labor Standards and Special Assistant to the President for Consumer Affairs; Assistant Secretary of Agriculture for International Relations; Assistant Administrator for Human Resources and Social Development, Agency for International Development; Ambassador to Denmark; Ambassador to Norway; Ambassador to Luxembourg; U.S. Representative on the Trusteeship Council of the United Nations; Member, Interstate Commerce Commission; Member, Federal Trade Commission; Member, Equal Employment Opportunity Commission; Member, Board of Directors, Export-Import Bank of Washington; Deputy Assistant Secretary of Agriculture for Marketing and Consumer Services; Deputy Director, Office of Civil Defense, Department of the Army; Commissioner of Welfare, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare; Commissioner of Vocational Rehabilitation, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare; Commissioner, Public Housing Administration, Housing and Home Finance Agency; Treasurer of the United States; Director, Office of Territories, Department of Interior; Director, Women's Bureau, Department of Labor; Chief, Children's Bureau, Welfare Administration, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

In 1964 more than 600,000 women were working in the executive branch of the Federal Government, the largest single employer in the Nation (table 54). This number, slightly over half as high as the World War II peak, was considerably above the prewar level of about 173,000 women. The gain was related largely to the Government's need for more employees to carry out the increased responsibilities resulting from an expanding economy as well as from defense requirements.

[9] *Ibid.* Appendix E.

Table 54.—Women in the Federal Service, Selected Years, 1923–64[1]

Year	Number[2]	As percent of total employees	Percent in District of Columbia area
1964 (estimated)	601, 358	25	17
1961	[3] 560, 593	25	17
1958	533, 001	24	17
1956	533, 318	24	18
1954	521, 945	24	19
1952 (Korean conflict)	601, 215	25	19
1950	410, 327	23	24
1947 (return of war veterans)	444, 194	24	22
1944 (World War II peak)	1, 110, 545	37	15
1939	172, 733	19	29
1923	81, 486	16	34

[1] Data are for June of each year except 1944 (July) and 1956, 1958, 1961, and 1964 (December).
[2] Refers to civilian employees in continental United States.
[3] The total number of women Federal employees in the United States and foreign countries was 593,579 in 1961.

Source: U.S. Civil Service Commission.

The majority of women employed by the Federal Government are white-collar workers, mainly clerk-typists, clerk-stenographers, and secretaries. Others are technicians and specialists. About 1 out of 10 women in white-collar employment in 1964 had professional or scientific jobs requiring either a college degree or its equivalent, and a smaller proportion of women held high-level policy-determining or administrative management positions. Most of the women blue-collar workers were engaged in service operations, such as laundering and drycleaning or food preparation. Others were assigned to manual work; fabric, fur, and textile work; and printing and reproduction. The women blue-collar workers were employed mainly by the Military Establishment or the Veterans' Administration.

Executive branch, Foreign Service.—In the international field, in June 1965 the United States was represented by a woman on the Trusteeship Council, the highest rank ever held by a woman representing the United States in the United Nations. Women have represented the United States regularly as delegates in the U.N. General Assembly, the UNESCO General Conference, UNICEF, the Organization of American States, and other bodies. In 1965 women served as representatives of the United States on the Social Commission and the Status of Women Commission, and women served in various capacities in the U.S. Permanent Mission to the United Nations. The United

States is a member of the Inter-American Commission of Women, and a woman represents the United States in the Inter-American Children's Institute. In addition, U.S. delegations to international conferences usually include women among their advisers and in other technical capacities.

A total of 2,614 women were in the Foreign Service of the United States in 1965 (table 55). They equaled 28.1 percent of all Foreign Service employees of the State Department. The Ambassadors to Denmark, Norway, and Luxembourg were the only women among 104 chiefs of missions. Other Foreign Service officers included 330 women, less than one-tenth of the total. Most of the women in this group were consular officers, secretaries, and political officers in embassies and legations.

About half of the staff positions in the Foreign Service of the State Department were held by women. They were employed in a variety of specialized occupations, including clerk, stenographer, typist, and secretary, as well as assistant attaché, liaison officer, fiscal officer, consular attaché, administrative assistant, librarian, and political and research analyst.

Table 55.—Foreign Service Personnel, by Sex and Rank, 1965

Rank	Total	Women		Men	
		Number	Percent distribution	Number	Percent distribution
Total	9,309	2,614	100.0	6,696	100.0
Foreign Service Officers: [1]					
Chief of Mission	104	3	.1	102	1.5
Career Ambassador, Career Minister, and Class 1	343	6	.2	337	5.0
Class 2 and 3	1,433	41	1.6	1,392	20.8
Class 4 and 5	1,744	177	6.8	1,567	23.4
Class 6 to 8	1,387	106	4.1	1,281	19.1
Foreign Service Staff:					
Class 1 and 2	128	8	.3	120	1.8
Class 3 to 5	648	276	10.6	372	5.6
Class 6 to 8	2,533	1,240	47.5	1,293	19.3
Class 9 and 10	975	757	29.0	218	3.3
Consular agent	12	-------	------	12	.2
Unclassified	2	-------	------	2	[2]

[1] Includes 1,339 Foreign Service Reserve Officers (73 women).
[2] Less than 0.05 percent.

Source: U.S. Department of State: Summary of Employment, February 28, 1965.

A study by the President's Commission on the Status of Women showed less discrepancy in promotion rates of men and women in the Foreign Service than in the civil service generally.[10] The turnover among women Foreign Service officers is quite high because of the difficulty of combining marriage and a career in the Foreign Service, which requires frequent changes in assignments.

57. Women in the Armed Services

Women in the Armed Forces of the United States are an integral part of our armed services. They are on an interchangeable (noncombatant) basis with their male counterparts and provide a well-trained nucleus that could be expanded rapidly in event of mobilization.

At the end of December 1964 there were 30,534 women on active duty in the Armed Forces (table 56). They included 10,587 officers, who represented one-third of all the women and were 3.0 percent of all commissioned officers in the armed services. About four-fifths of the women officers were nurses and other medical personnel. The 19,947 enlisted women constituted about 1 percent of total enlisted personnel. Women have been given permanent status in the Armed Forces by act of Congress. In June 1965 women officers served in the grades of second lieutenant to colonel in the Women's Army Corps, Air Force, and Marine Corps, and from ensign to captain in the Navy. While on active duty both officers and enlisted women receive medical and dental care, annual vacations, educational and training opportunities, and social security protection.

Programs for women in the armed services are divided into two broad categories—medical and line. Requirements for medical personnel are based on professional needs and are not limited. However,

Table 56.—Women in the Armed Services on Active Duty as of December 31, 1964

Branch of service	*Total*	*Officers*	*Enlisted*
Total	30,534	10,587	19,947
Army	12,358	3,780	8,578
Air Force	8,807	4,078	4,729
Navy	7,944	2,585	5,359
Marine Corps [1]	1,425	144	1,281

[1] Supported by Navy for their medical needs.

Source: U.S. Department of Defense, Defense Advisory Committee on Women in the Armed Services, 1965.

[10] *Ibid.*, p. 45.

the number of women in the "line" services may not exceed 2 percent of the total military strength.

Women's peak participation in the Armed Forces was reached in May 1945, when there was a total of 266,184 women in the four military services. Of these, 183,484 were enlisted women, 67,507 were nurses and other medical personnel, and 15,193 were nonmedical officers. In addition, there were about 10,000 enlisted women and 1,000 women officers in the Coast Guard (SPARS). In peacetime SPARS are under the Treasury Department.

The direct commission program is the major source of officers. With few exceptions the requirement for a direct commission as a second lieutenant or ensign is a bachelor's or higher degree from an accredited college or university. Most newly appointed officers attend officer training programs in order to undergo military orientation and other training. At the end of their training period these officers are assigned to a specialization, usually determined by their major field of study in college.

Enlisted women must have a high school diploma or its equivalent. Highly qualified enlisted women or noncommissioned officers may qualify for officer candidate programs conducted by each of the four services. Upon successful completion of these programs, they are commissioned as officers in their respective services.

The minimum age of enlistment, as well as the length of enlistment period, varies not only from service to service but also between officers and enlisted personnel.[11] Members of the Women's Army Corps (WAC) have a minimum duty obligation of 2 years for officers and from 2 to 6 years for enlisted women. Women in the Navy (WAVES) are obligated for a minimum of 2 years if they are officers and 3 years if enlisted. Women in the Air Force (WAF) have a minimum service period of 4 years for both officers and enlisted personnel, while the Women Marine officers have a duty obligation of from 2 to 4 years and the enlisted women from 3 to 4 years.

Of all women officers on active duty at the end of 1964, almost 80 percent were in the health professions. They were assigned to work within the medical areas of the Forces—Medical Corps, Nurse Corps, and the Medical Specialist and/or Service Corps. Nurses alone accounted for over 72 percent of all women officers, constituting the largest single professional group of all women in the Armed Forces.

[11] See current Fact Sheets prepared for the Defense Advisory Committee on Women in the Armed Services by the following: Women's Army Corps, Army Nurse Corps, Army Medical Specialist Corps; Women in the Navy, Nurse Corps, U.S. Navy; Women in the Air Force, Air Force Nurse Corps, Air Force Medical Specialist Corps; and Women Marines.

Doctors, dentists, pharmacists, optometrists, dietitians, and physical and occupational therapists, as well as others in allied medical scientific fields, accounted for the additional medical officers.

The remaining 20 percent of the women officers were nonmedical or "line" officers. They performed a wide variety of duties, ranging from staff positions at Department level to unit commanders in the field. Depending upon existing military requirements and their training, these women were employed as logisticians and operations officers, information experts, finance and disbursing officers, personnel managers, scientists, and lawyers.

Most of the enlisted women were in military positions that are closely related to women's occupations in civilian life. Of all enlisted women on active duty at the end of 1964, about one-fourth were assigned to clerical and administrative positions such as clerk-typist, administrator, payroll clerk, personnel supervisor, and keypunch operator. An additional one-fourth of the enlisted women were employed as medical technicians, that is, X-ray technicians, dental technicians, laboratory technicians, and medical corpsmen. Other enlisted women were in occupations that also have direct civilian counterparts, such as meteorologist, draftsman, photographer, data programer, air traffic controller, lithographer, electronic technician, and cook. However, many other enlisted women were employed in work that had no direct counterpart in civilian life. Examples of these are missile master console operator, intelligence specialist, cryptographer, and communications specialist.

The military services maintain an educational establishment ranging from indoctrination courses for newly enlisted personnel to postgraduate degree courses at universities throughout the country. Many of these courses are aimed at training enlisted women to gain a skill either on the job or in one of the service schools operated by each of the services. Selected personnel also may enroll in civilian colleges in degree-completion programs for the purpose of acquiring a bachelor's or higher degree. Officers selected on a best qualified basis are trained at civilian institutions at both the undergraduate and graduate levels. For example, the nursing education program is open to qualified enlisted women of any rank and rating, and provides training leading to a bachelor's or master's degree and a commission in the Navy Nurse Corps. Naval postgraduate education is available to women officers in all the professional fields to which they have been assigned. In addition, off-duty college courses for credit toward a degree are conducted by civilian universities at most military installations for the benefit of all military personnel.

Because of the nature of the military service almost all of the officers and enlisted women, unlike women in the civilian labor force, are required to devote a certain proportion of their working time to duties not related to their work: inspection, housekeeping duties, and training activities. These duties vary by service and rank, but they are characteristic of all the military services.

The Veterans' Administration estimates that in the spring of 1965 there were approximately 414,000 women veterans, almost 2 percent of all war veterans. Of the total number of women veterans, about 22,000 were veterans from World War I, 317,000 from World War II, and 75,000 from the Korean conflict. In addition, there were 400 nurses from the Spanish-American War. In 1965, however, less than 1 percent (about 27,200) of all veterans receiving compensation or pensions were women. Both women and men veterans are entitled to the same benefits, as for example, life insurance coverage, reemployment rights, and educational benefits. Qualified women may also apply for Reserve service. Women reservists, depending upon their Reserve status, participate in weekly drills and summer training with their units. They may be called to active duty in the event of a national emergency, the same as men reservists.

58. Women in State Office

In 1965, 370 women were in the State legislatures—35 in upper houses, 333 in lower houses, and 2 in Nebraska's unicameral legislature. In Vermont about 19 percent of the 246 seats in the House of Representatives were held by women; in New Hampshire about 16 percent of 400 seats were held by women. Ten to fifteen percent of the seats in the lower house of the following States, in descending order of their percentages, were held by women: Connecticut, Oregon, Arizona, Nevada, and Washington. About 21 percent of the members of the New Hampshire Senate were women; in Delaware and Connecticut women accounted for about 11 and 8 percent, respectively, of the members of the upper houses. There was at least 1 woman in the legislature of every State except South Carolina. In New York 4 out of 208 seats were held by women; in California, 1 out of 120.

Women in 23 States had achieved statewide elective positions other than in the legislature, including 10 on boards of education and 7 as secretary of state or secretary of internal affairs. Others served as treasurer, auditor, superintendent of public instruction, chief and associate justices of supreme courts, trustee of State institutions of higher education, and register of State land office. In Alabama 5 of a total of

18 statewide elective posts were held by women; in Wyoming, 2 of 9; in Nevada, 3 of 17; in Arizona, 3 of 18; in Connecticut and in Delaware, 1 of 6; in Pennsylvania, 1 of 12; and in Utah, 2 of 15. Neither in New York nor in California did women hold statewide elective posts other than in the legislature.

3
WOMEN'S INCOME AND EARNINGS

One of the primary measures of a woman's economic status is her income and earnings. For an increasing number of women, these factors are strongly influenced by their employment pattern and the kinds of jobs they have obtained.

Income statistics, as reported by the Bureau of the Census, U.S. Department of Commerce, include income from all sources—not only wages, salaries, earnings from self-employment, rents, and returns from investment such as dividends and interest, but also income from pensions, insurance policies, old-age and survivors insurance benefits, and aid to dependent children, as well as other forms of public assistance.

Factors Affecting Earnings

The most important form of income reported by women is payroll earnings—compensation received in the form of wages, salaries, piece-rate payments, tips, and cash bonuses. Payroll earnings vary widely among individuals, influenced by such factors as type of job, skill requirements of the job, character of the employing industry, geographical location of the plant or office, size of the company, and extent of unionization.[1] In addition, of course, all types of earnings are affected by the state of the economy at any period of time.

Women tend to receive lower income and lower earnings than do men. This results from differences in types of jobs, in job training, and in continuity of work experience. Large numbers of women work in traditionally low-paying occupations and low-wage industries.

A significant difference between women workers and men workers is the intermittent nature of women's lifetime work pattern. Nearly all women workers interrupt their employment at some time for marriage and for bearing and rearing children. When they return to the

[1] For information on wages and salaries paid by employers for a specific job, the nearest local public employment service office should be consulted. There are more than 1,900 of these offices in the Nation.

labor force, many can work only part time or part of the year because of continued home responsibilities. Thus—whether clerical workers, operatives, or professional workers—they will have lost ground in terms of job seniority and work experience to qualify for promotions at the same rate as men.

Income of Families and Women

59. Family Income

The 47.8 million families in the Nation had a median income of $6,569 in 1964 (table 57). About one-tenth of the families received less than $2,000, almost one-fifth received less than $3,000, and well over two-fifths received $7,000 or more. The median income of families has been rising steadily. In 1964 it was 151 percent more than in 1945 ($2,621).

One factor responsible for the higher family income was the increase in the proportion of families with more than one wage earner. At the same time there was no change in the proportion of families without a wage earner. In 1964, 43 percent of all families had one earner, 37 percent had two earners, 12 percent had three or more earners, and 8 percent had no earner. By comparison, in 1945, 59 percent of all families had only one earner, 34 percent had two or more earners, and 8 percent had none.

The earnings of family members provide the sole income for a majority of families, and most earnings are in the form of wages

Table 57.—Income of Families, by Type of Family, 1964

Type of family	Number	Percent distribution	Median income: Total families	Median income: Families headed by year-round full-time worker
All families	47,835,000	100.0	$6,569	$7,720
Male head	42,829,000	89.5	6,883	7,826
Married (wife present)	41,647,000	87.1	6,932	7,838
Wife in labor force	13,647,000	28.5	8,170	9,045
Wife not in labor force	28,000,000	58.5	6,338	7,296
Other marital status	1,182,000	2.5	5,792	7,122
Female head	5,006,000	10.5	3,458	5,079

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P-60, No. 47.

and salaries. Only a small proportion of families depend on earnings from self-employment.

Income of husband-wife families.—Median income in 1964 for all the 41.6 million husband-wife families was $6,932. For the 13.6 million families in which the wife worked, the median income was $8,170. This was considerably more than the $6,338 median income for families in which the wife was not in the labor force. Sixty-two percent of the families with working wives had incomes of $7,000 or more compared with 43 percent of those with wives not in the labor force. An undetermined, although small, percentage of husband-wife families had some income from the earnings of other family members. In a very small percentage of families the husband was not working.

Income of female-head families.—One-tenth of all families were headed by a woman in 1964. Their median income was only $3,458—just above the $3,000 poverty line. Families in which the woman head was a year-round full-time worker did better—their median income was $5,079, still substantially below the $7,296 median income of male-head families in which the wife did not work. However, in only 29 percent of the families headed by a woman was the family head a full-time breadwinner compared with 70 percent of the male-head families. Nineteen percent of the families with a female head had incomes of $7,000 or more. More detailed data from the 1960 census indicate that female-head families depend to a larger extent than do husband-wife families on income from other family members. (For other characteristics of female-head families, see section 20.)

60. Income of Women Compared With That of Men

Differences in income received.—During 1964, 60 percent of the women 14 years of age and over in the population and 91 percent of the men received some income of their own. The median income received by women, however, was substantially below that received by men. The 41.7 million women who had income of their own had a median income of $1,449 (table 58). The 58.5 million men, in contrast, had more than three times as much ($4,647). Among those whose income consisted of wages and salaries only, the median income of women was $1,909 and that of men was $5,015. The difference was not as great—but was still substantial—among year-round full-time workers. In 1964 women year-round full-time workers had a median wage or salary income of $3,690, which was only 60 percent of that of men ($6,195).

Equally striking differences between total money income of women and men are revealed when the percentages are compared at various income levels. For example, in 1964, 40 percent of the women, but only 14 percent of the men, had an income below $1,000; and 59 percent of the women, but only 25 percent of the men, had less than $2,000. At the upper end of the income scale, only 10 percent of the women, but 47 percent of the men, had an income of $5,000 or more.

Table 58.—Income of Women and Men, 1964

(Persons 14 years of age and over)

	Total money income		*Wage or salary income*	
	Women	*Men*	*Women*	*Men*
TOTAL INCOME RECIPIENTS				
Number (in thousands)	41,704	58,533	29,453	47,389
Percent of population	59.7	91.4	42.2	74.0
Median income	$1,449	$4,647	$1,909	$5,015
Percent distribution				
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Under $1,000	40.0	14.2	35.7	15.5
$1,000 to $1,999	18.8	10.9	15.6	7.6
$2,000 to $2,999	13.3	8.9	14.8	6.7
$3,000 to $3,999	10.6	9.4	13.3	9.6
$4,000 to $4,999	7.6	9.8	9.6	10.5
$5,000 and over	9.7	46.8	11.0	50.2
YEAR-ROUND FULL-TIME WORKERS				
Percent of total income recipients	28.2	59.5	38.3	65.9
Median income	$3,710	$6,283	$3,690	$6,195

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P-60, No. 47.

Trends in income differences.—It is not unexpected that women receive a smaller average annual income than do men when total wage and salary incomes are compared, since a much smaller proportion of women than men work full time the year round. In 1964, for instance, only 37 percent of the women, but 66 percent of the men, were full-time year-round workers. (For a discussion of women's part-time and part-year work patterns, see sections 36 and 37.)

However, a comparison of median wage and salary incomes of full-time year-round women and men workers reveals that the incomes of

women are not only considerably less than those of men, but that the gap between the two has widened in recent years (chart P). In 1956, for example, among full-time year-round wage and salary workers, women's median income of $2,719 was 64 percent of the $4,252 received by men. Women's median wage and salary income rose to $3,690 in 1964, while men's rose to $6,195. Both sexes had significant increases in income, but women's income increased at a slower rate than that of men and as a result was only 60 percent of that of men in 1964.

Occupational income differences.—A comparison of wage and salary income of full-time year-round women workers in selected occupational groups with that of men shows that women's relative income position deteriorated in most occupations during the period 1956 to 1964 (table 59).

The median wage or salary income of women clerical workers dropped from 72 percent of that of men in 1956 to 66 percent in 1964; that of women operatives, from 62 to 58 percent, after reaching a peak of 63 percent in 1959; and that of women sales workers, from a peak of 45 percent in 1957 to 40 percent in 1964. Income of women

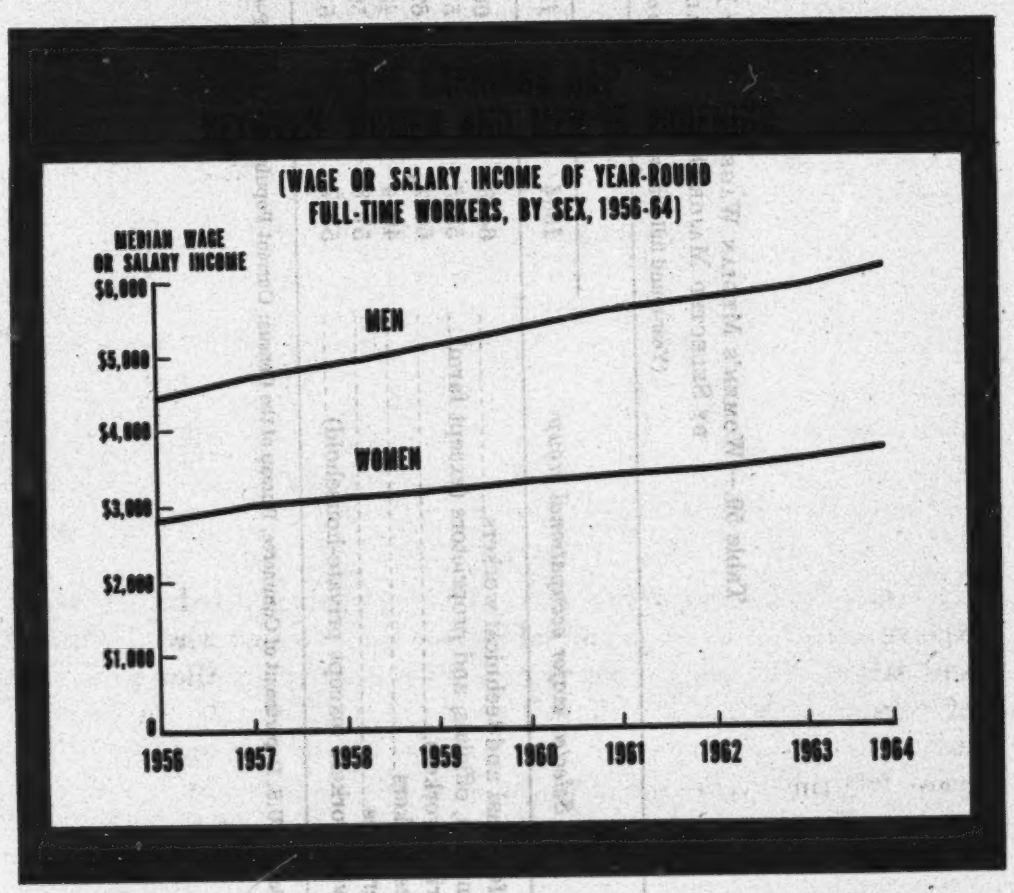

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Table 59.—Women's Median Wage or Salary Income as Percent of Men's, by Selected Major Occupational Group, 1956–64

(Year-round full-time workers 14 years of age and over)

Selected major occupational group	Year								
	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959	1958	1957	1956
Professional and technical workers	64.3	64.8	66.1	67.6	64.0	64.2	63.7	63.6	62.4
Managers, officials, and proprietors (except farm)	55.5	55.2	57.8	53.2	57.6	56.9	58.6	63.7	59.1
Clerical workers	66.2	67.7	68.6	69.5	68.3	68.1	70.0	72.0	71.7
Sales workers	40.4	39.0	43.6	39.1	42.2	42.2	43.8	44.5	41.8
Operatives	57.8	57.4	59.4	57.3	59.7	63.3	61.5	59.4	62.1
Service workers (except private-household)	53.7	57.5	51.8	56.1	59.1	56.0	53.2	55.3	55.4

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P–60, Nos. 47, 43, 41, 39, 37, 35, 33, 30, and 27.

managers, officials, and proprietors also worsened relative to that of men—from 64 percent in 1957 to 56 percent in 1964. The wage and salary income of professional and technical women workers in 1964 was 64 percent of men's, after reaching a peak of 68 percent in 1961.

Similarly, women service workers not in private households were worse off relative to men in 1964. Their wage and salary income reached a peak of 59 percent of men's in 1960, but was 54 percent in 1964.

61. *Income of Women by Work Experience*

Although it does not affect the comparison of full-time year-round earnings for men and women, women's part-time and part-year employment is one of the reasons accounting for the differences in median incomes between men and women. This type of work pattern necessarily reduces average annual earnings substantially. During 1964, for instance, 21.1 million women employed in full-time jobs had a median income of $2,894 (table 60). In contrast, the median income of the 8.3 million women with part-time jobs amounted to only $649. About half the women in this group worked for less than 27 weeks during the year.

Table 60.—Median Income of Women Workers in 1964, by Work Experience

(Woman 14 years of age and over)

Work experience	Women with full-time jobs [1]		Women with part-time jobs [2]	
	Number [3]	Median income	Number [3]	Median income
Total	21, 060, 000	$2, 894	8, 341, 000	$649
50 to 52 weeks	11, 806, 000	3, 710	2, 268, 000	1, 276
40 to 49 weeks	2, 436, 000	2, 846	878, 000	1, 238
27 to 39 weeks	2, 331, 000	2, 053	1, 061, 000	892
14 to 26 weeks	2, 378, 000	1, 293	1, 646, 000	542
13 weeks or less	2, 109, 000	444	2, 488, 000	337

[1] Worked 35 hours or more a week.
[2] Worked less than 35 hours a week.
[3] Refers to number of women with income.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P-60, No. 47.

It is significant for the computation of median annual incomes of women workers that there is a very wide income differential between women who work full time the year round and those who work part

time the year round. Thus in 1964 the median income of the 2.3 million women in the latter group was $1,276, while that of the 11.8 million who worked full time the year round was $3,710. Equally significant is the proportion of women who work part time and part of the year: half of those with part-time jobs in 1964 worked less than 27 weeks.

62. *Wage or Salary Income of White and Nonwhite Women*

The median wage or salary income of nonwhite full-time year-round women workers in 1964 was $2,674 (table 61). This was 69 percent of the median income of white women. Although this percentage was an improvement over the years 1956–59 and 1961–63, it was just short of the peak 70 percent that nonwhite women workers' income was of that of white women workers in 1960.

Table 61.—Median Wage or Salary Income of Year-Round Full-Time Workers, by Sex and Color, 1939 and 1956–64

(Persons 14 years of age and over)

Year	Median wage or salary income		Nonwhite income as percent of white income
	White	Nonwhite	
	WOMEN		
1964	$3,859	$2,674	69.3
1963	3,723	2,368	63.6
1962	3,601	2,278	63.3
1961	3,480	2,325	66.8
1960	3,410	2,372	69.6
1959	3,306	2,196	66.4
1958	3,225	1,988	61.6
1957	3,107	1,866	60.1
1956	2,958	1,637	55.3

1939	863	327	37.9
	MEN		
1964	$6,497	$4,285	66.0
1963	6,277	4,104	65.4
1962	6,025	3,799	63.1
1961	5,880	3,883	66.0
1960	5,662	3,789	66.9
1959	5,456	3,339	61.2
1958	5,186	3,368	64.9
1957	4,950	3,137	63.4
1956	4,710	2,912	61.8

1939	1,419	639	45.0

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P-60, Nos. 47, 43, 41, 39, 37, 35, 33, 30, and 27.

In the light of the longer period 1939–64, nonwhite women workers made considerable progress in their income position relative to white. In 1939 nonwhite women's wage or salary income had been only 38 percent of that of white women.

The gap between the income of nonwhite and white women workers is explained largely by the greater occupational concentration of nonwhite women in low-wage and low-skill jobs and their geographical concentration in Southern States, where incomes are lower than in other regions of the country. For Negro women, in particular, opportunities at all levels of employment are more limited in the South than in other regions.[2] Some progress has been made, however, in raising the educational and skill levels of nonwhite girls and in opening up employment opportunities to them.

Nonwhite women were also in an unfavorable income position relative to nonwhite men. In 1964 nonwhite women's median wage or salary income was 62 percent of that of nonwhite men. This was, however, slightly better than the 60 percent that the wage or salary income of all women who worked full time the year round was of that of all men in this category.

63. Income by Age

When women's income is analyzed in terms of the ages of the women involved, important differences are found in the proportions we receive income as well as in the amount received.

In 1964 the age group with the greatest proportion receiving income (82 percent) was that of women 65 years of age and over.[3] This high proportion, which increased sharply during the 1950's and early 1960's, reflects the rising number of women who receive social security benefits and private or public pensions. In the group of women 25 to 64 years of age, the proportion receiving income in 1964 ranged from 52 to 63 percent. Among girls 14 to 19 years of age, many of whom were in school, only 43 percent received some income.

In amount, the median income of women rose sharply from $384 for girls 14 to 19 years old to $1,951 for the young adult group 20 to 24 years old. Among women 25 to 54 years of age, it increased only moderately, to a peak of $2,410 for women 45 to 54 years old; then it dropped to $1,910 for women 55 to 64 years old and, finally, to $952 for women 65 years and over.

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[2] For a discussion of Negro women's income and nonwhite women's earnings, see "Negro Women Workers in 1960." Bull. 287. Women's Bureau, U.S. Department of Labor. 1963.

[3] Current Population Reports, P–60, No. 47. Bureau of the Census, U.S. Department of Commerce.

The variation in income from one age group to another was much less for women than for men, probably because of women's relatively less continuous employment over their working life. Women's different lifetime working pattern also explains why their peak income ($2,410) was attained in the age group 45 to 54 years old, whereas men's peak income ($6,500) was attained by the younger age group 35 to 44 years old.

Among year-round full-time workers, women reached their peak income ($3,893) at age 25 to 34 years, while men reached theirs ($6,969) at age 35 to 44 years. However, in the peak income groups of women and men the proportions of year-round full-time workers differed greatly—34 percent and 81 percent, respectively.

64. Income by Occupation

The wage or salary income of women and men is obviously influenced by the type of job they hold. Occupations that require greater skills and more knowledge naturally pay better than those that involve only routine duties. Among women who were year-round full-time workers in 1964, the highest paid were professional and technical workers ($5,150) and nonfarm managers, officials, and proprietors ($4,369) (table 62). In the clerical field, where 3 out of 10 women workers find jobs, the median wage or salary income in 1964 was still relatively high ($4,060). On the other hand, women working as operatives made less than two-thirds as much as women professional

Table 62.—Median Wage or Salary Income of Year-Round Full-Time Workers, by Major Occupational Group and Sex, 1964

(Persons 14 years of age and over)

Major occupational group	*Women*	*Men*
Professional, technical, and kindred workers	$5,150	$8,004
Farmers and farm managers	(1)	754
Managers, officials, and proprietors (except farm)	4,369	7,870
Clerical and kindred workers	4,060	6,134
Sales workers	2,719	6,733
Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers	(1)	6,538
Operatives and kindred workers	3,271	5,659
Private-household workers	1,082	(1)
Service workers (except private-household)	2,525	4,701
Farm laborers and foremen	(1)	2,160
Laborers (except farm, mine)	(1)	4,436

[1] Median not shown where base is less than 200,000.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P-60, No. 47.

workers, and women sales and service workers outside the home earned about half as much as the most skilled group of women. At the low end of the wage or salary income scale, women private-household workers averaged only $1,082 even when they worked full time the year round.

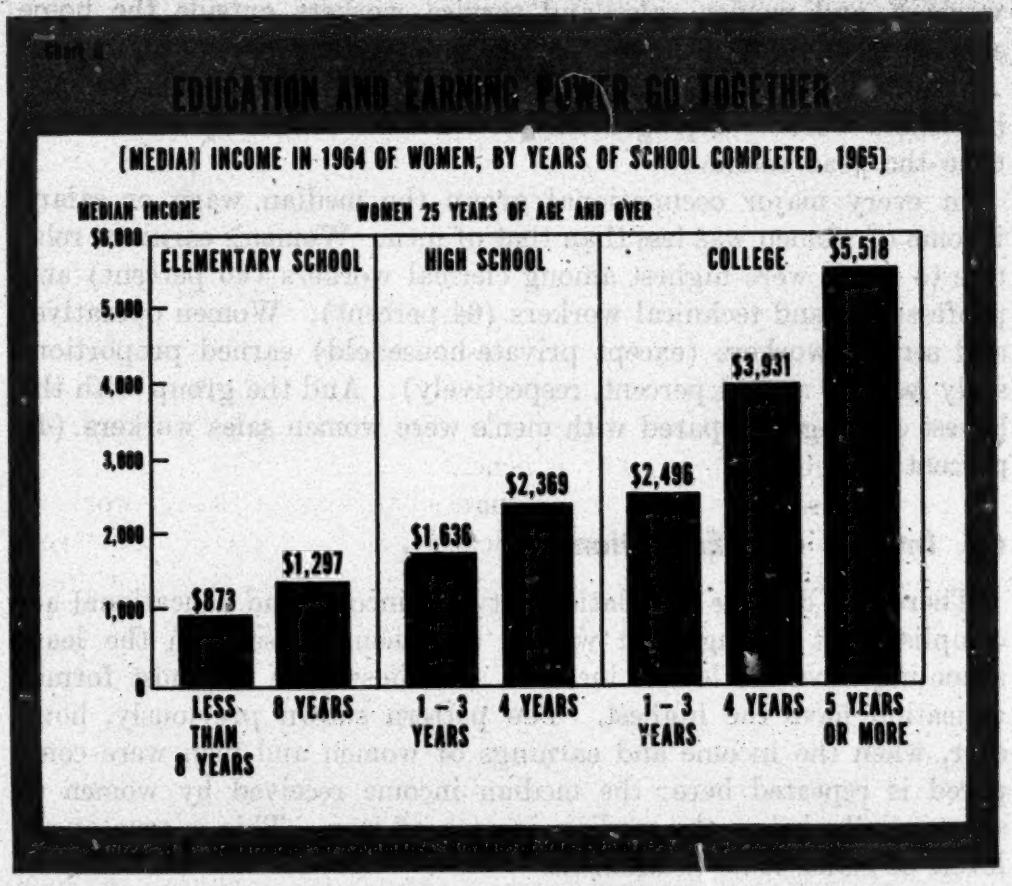
In every major occupational group the median wage or salary income of women was less than that of men. Women's earnings relative to men's were highest among clerical workers (66 percent) and professional and technical workers (64 percent). Women operatives and service workers (except private-household) earned proportionately less (58 and 54 percent, respectively). And the group with the lowest earnings compared with men's were women sales workers (40 percent).

65. Income and Education

There is a definite correlation between income and educational accomplishment among both women and men: those with the least schooling have the lowest incomes, and those with the most formal education have the highest. The pattern shown previously, however, when the income and earnings of women and men were compared is repeated here: the median income received by women is substantially below the median income of men. This is true at all levels of educational attainment.

Among the nearly 33 million women 25 years of age and over who received some money income in 1964, those with 5 or more years of college had the highest median income ($5,518) (chart Q). Women who had completed 4 years of college had only 71 percent ($3,931) of the median income of those with graduate study, and women high school graduates had only 60 percent ($2,369) of the median income of those who had completed 4 years of college. Women with 8 years of schooling had only 55 percent ($1,297) of the median income of high school graduates.

A comparison of the median income received by women and men with equal amounts of schooling shows that the more education women have, the more nearly their income approaches the income of men. For example, among women and men who had completed 8 years of school, women's median income was only 33 percent of men's; among those with 4 years of high school (no college), women's median income was 38 percent of men's. Women who had completed 4 years of college received 47 percent as much income as men. The income of women with 5 or more years of college came closest (59 percent) to that of men.



There is, however, one exception to this general rule. Women with less than 8 years of schooling received nearly as high a proportion of men's income (35 percent) in 1964 as did women who had completed high school (38 percent). This exception may be accounted for in part by the fact that many women who have not finished elementary school are 65 years of age and over and are probably eligible for and receiving social security benefits. (See section 66.) Of the women with less than 8 years of education at the time of the 1960 decennial census, more than 2 out of 5 of those 25 years of age and over who had income were at least 65 years old.

66. *Women Receiving Benefits Under Old-Age, Survivors, and Disability Insurance (OASDI)*

The Social Security Act of 1935, as amended, provides for partial replacement of income lost when employment is cut off because of age, disability, or death. Women may benefit from the act in their own right as workers, or they may benefit as aged wives of retired or disabled workers, as widows, as dependent mothers of deceased workers,

or as young wives or widows if they have children of insured workers in their care. Certain divorced women are also eligible for benefits.

The current programs cover almost all types of workers; Federal employees are the principal exceptions.

A woman qualifies for retirement benefits if she is fully insured. How long she must work to be fully insured depends on when she was born—the older she is, the less time she needs to have worked under social security. A woman born in 1929 or later needs a total of 10 years' work under social security to qualify for retirement benefits. The minimum requirement is three-fourths of a year of work under social security for a woman born before 1893. The period over which her average earnings are computed can begin in 1937 or 1951, depending upon which results in a higher benefit.

The social security program is financed through a tax on workers and their employers and on self-employed persons, and is administered by the Federal Government. A series of amendments to the original act has extended its coverage, increased benefit amounts, expanded the classes of dependents who qualify as beneficiaries, protected the benefit rights of certain workers who suffer long-term disability, and added health insurance (Medicare) benefits beginning in July 1966. Disabled insured workers whose disability is expected to last for at least 12 months are eligible for disability benefits for themselves and their families, beginning with the seventh month of their disability.

Retired workers (both sexes) under 72 years of age generally receive their benefits if they earn less than $1,500 a year, an increase from the $1,200 limit in effect prior to January 1, 1966. Beginning with age 72, benefits are paid without regard to current earnings.

About 9.2 million women received benefits under the old-age, survivors, and disability insurance programs of the Social Security Administration at the end of 1963 (table 63). Male beneficiaries were fewer in number (7.1 million). Among the 16.3 million adults who received some type of benefit, women accounted for 56 percent of the total.

About 3.8 million women beneficiaries were retired workers 62 years of age and over, who received average monthly benefits of $63.42. Another 2.4 million beneficiaries were wives of retirees 62 years and over, without dependent children, who received average monthly benefits of $40.66. The third largest group of beneficiaries were widows 62 years and over, without children; they numbered a little more than 2 million and received average benefits of $66.85.

Nonwhite women were less than 7 percent of all women beneficiaries and numbered 629,000. Their average benefits ranged from $20.94 to $65.13; those of white women beneficiaries, from $31.62 to $80.99.

Table 63.—Number of Women Receiving OASDI Benefits and Average Monthly Benefits Received, by Color, at End of 1963

Beneficiaries	Total		White		Nonwhite	
	Number	Average monthly benefits	Number	Average monthly benefits	Number	Average monthly benefits
Total	9,203,136	----	8,574,117	----	629,019	----
Retirees 62 years and over	3,765,959	$63.42	3,492,479	$64.44	273,480	$50.39
Wives of retirees, with dependent children [1]	170,047	29.94	143,245	31.62	26,802	20.94
Wives 62 years and over of retirees, without dependent children [2]	2,397,589	40.66	2,292,470	41.11	105,119	30.82
Widows, without children [3]	2,008,102	66.85	1,909,811	67.44	98,291	55.31
Mothers (divorced or widowed)	461,675	59.43	389,347	62.17	72,328	44.68
Parents [4]	34,001	69.69	30,645	70.56	3,356	61.74
Disabled:						
Own disability	197,976	78.87	171,514	80.99	26,462	65.13
Wives of disabled workers, with dependent children	141,112	31.66	120,323	33.03	20,789	23.72
Wives of disabled workers, without dependent children	26,675	35.80	24,283	36.16	2,392	32.16

[1] Dependent children are children under 18 years or disabled children of any age whose disability began before their 18th birthday. A wife with dependent children may be under 62 years and receive her full benefit, which is 50 percent of the retiree's amount.

[2] If a wife without dependent children is under 65 years at the time of her husband's retirement, she receives reduced benefits; if she is 65 at the time of her husband's retirement, she receives full benefits, which are 50 percent of the retiree's amount.

[3] A widow receives 82½ percent of the deceased worker's benefit amount.

[4] The dependent parent of a deceased insured worker may receive benefits at age 62 or over. If there is only one surviving parent, he or she gets 82½ percent of the benefit amount; if both parents survive, each gets 75 percent of the benefit amount.

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Social Security Administration.

At the end of 1963, 198,000 disabled women workers were receiving an average monthly benefit of $78.87. In addition, about 170,000 wives of disabled workers were receiving benefits. About 84 percent of these beneficiaries were mothers; their monthly benefits averaged $31.66.

As a result of the 1956 amendment to the Social Security Act that lowered the retirement age for women from 65 to 62 years, there has been an increase in the number of women applying for benefits even though early retirement means permanently reduced benefits. By the close of 1963, 36 percent of the women aged 65 and over who were drawing benefits as retired workers and 44 percent of the retired women beneficiaries aged 62 and over had taken an actuarially reduced benefit. Of the women drawing benefits as dependent wives of retired workers at the end of 1963, the proportion with actuarially reduced benefits was 39 percent for those aged 65 and over and 48 percent for the entire group aged 62 and over.

As of January 1, 1964, 114.9 million workers then living, including 52.5 million women, had accumulated social security credits toward insurance benefits.

A recent survey of the aged undertaken by the Social Security Administration showed that old-age, survivors, and disability insurance benefits are a very substantial part of retirement income of women beneficiaries.[4] For example, in 1962 these benefits accounted for 46 percent of the total income of retired women, 52 percent of the total income of widows, and 40 percent of the total income of married couples.

67. Women as Stockholders

Women's participation in stockownership is another indicator of their economic status. The 9,430,000 women estimated to have one or more shares of stock in publicly owned corporations in early 1965 represented 47 percent of 20,120,000 individual shareholders, according to a study made by the New York Stock Exchange.[5]

About 1 out of 6 women and men in the adult population (21 years of age and over) was estimated to be a shareowner. Sixteen percent of all adult women were shareowners compared with 17 percent of adult men.

Women constituted 33 percent of the total stockholders of record reported by public corporations. The number of shares owned individually by women stockholders equaled 18 percent of the total

[4] Lenore A. Epstein, "Income of the Aged in 1962: First Findings of the 1963 Survey of the Aged." *In* Social Security Bulletin, Social Security Administration, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, March 1964.

[5] "Shareownership – U.S.A.: 1965 Census of Shareowners" New York Stock Exchange. June 1965.

as compared with 24 percent owned individually by men. The remaining shares (58 percent) were held or owned by institutions, brokers and dealers, persons with joint accounts, nominees (who hold shares for others), and foreign owners. The estimated market value of the stock registered in women's names was 18 percent of the total, compared with 20 percent registered in men's names.

According to a New York Stock Exchange study, in 1962 American women stockholders were slightly older than men stockholders.[6] The median age of women stockholders was 49 years, while that of men was 48. There were proportionately fewer women than men among shareowners under 21 years of age (minors) and among people 21 to 34 and 45 to 54 years old. However, the proportions of women shareowners were greater than those of men in the 35- to 44-year and 65-year-and-over age groups. In the latter age group women outnumbered men by nearly half a million. It is possible that many of these women shareowners acquired their stock through gifts or inheritance, since 1 out of 6 women shareowners was a widow.

The likelihood of shareownership increases with the amount of formal education completed by adult stockholders. In 1965 only 1 out of 18 adults with 3 years of high school or less was a shareowner. In contrast, 1 out of 7 adult high school graduates and 3 out of 5 adult college graduates were shareowners. Among women shareowners, 1 out of 4 had graduated from college.

The highest incidence of shareownership in 1965 occurred among people employed in professional and technical occupations—in this group almost 2 out of 5 were shareowners. Among those employed as clerical and sales workers, more than 1 out of 5 owned shares. For women, however, the highest incidence of shareownership (1 out of 2) occurred among those employed as clerical and sales workers. This is not surprising, since in April 1965 nearly 2 out of 5 women who worked were employed in clerical or sales jobs.

The largest single group of shareowners were women not in the labor force; that is, housewives, retired women, widows, and other women living alone. The nearly 6.4 million such women who were shareowners in 1965 accounted for about 35 percent of the total number of individual shareowners and about 17 percent of women not in the labor force.

Among adults who became shareowners for the first time between 1962 and 1965, about 52 percent were women. Twenty-nine percent of all the new shareowners were women not in the labor force.

The 1962 Stock Exchange study also provided a comparison of the manner in which women and men first acquired stock. It disclosed

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[6] "The 17 Million: 1962 Census of Shareowners in America." New York Stock Exchange. June 1962.

that 52 percent of the women purchased their first share through a broker, 18 percent inherited their shares or received them as gifts, and 16 percent made their initial stock acquisition through company stock purchase plans. More than twice as many women as men inherited their first shares of stock or received them as gifts.

Women on the whole seem to be more concerned with long-term investments than are men. A study conducted by the New York Stock Exchange in 1963 [7] indicated that even though slightly more than half of the adult shareowners in the country were women, they accounted for only one-fourth of the volume in trade (buying and selling).

Earnings of Nonprofessional Women Workers

68. *Salaries of Office Workers*

For the 7.5 million women engaged in clerical work, the main source of salary information is the Bureau of Labor Statistics' community wage surveys conducted regularly in 80 important centers of business and industry. These area wage surveys show straight-time earnings for a regular workweek, excluding any premium pay for overtime or nightwork. In addition to the average (arithmetic mean) earnings summarized here for major office occupations, the full reports show the number of workers by specified salary groupings.

Wage surveys covering 14 different office jobs in 17 selected standard metropolitan statistical areas during the fiscal year July 1963 to June 1964 are discussed here (table 64). Among women clerical workers surveyed, secretaries received the highest salaries—their average earnings ranged from $81 in Memphis to $108.50 in Los Angeles-Long Beach. Average earnings of class A accounting clerks ranged from $87.50 a week in Minneapolis-St. Paul to $105.50 in Los Angeles-Long Beach. Stenographers' weekly salaries averaged a low of $82 in Minneapolis-St. Paul and Boston and a high of $98 in Los Angeles-Long Beach. Office girls were among the lowest paid clerical workers studied, with weekly salaries ranging from $54.50 in Minneapolis-St. Paul to $69 in Los Angeles-Long Beach. The widest spreads in average weekly salaries were among switchboard operators—from a low of $53 in Memphis to a high of $84.50 in Los Angeles-Long Beach—and Comptometer operators—from a low of $65 in Birmingham to a high of $96.50 in Los Angeles-Long Beach.

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[7] "Public Transaction Study, Oct. 16, 1963." New York Stock Exchange. January 1964.

Table 64.—Weekly Earnings of Women in Selected Office Occupations, 17 Metropolitan Areas, July 1963–June 1964

Metropolitan area	Secretaries	Accounting clerks, class A	Bookkeeping machine operators, class A	Stenographers	Payroll clerks	Typists, class A	Comptometer operators	Keypunch operators, class A	Accounting clerks, class B	Bookkeeping machine operators, class B	Switchboard operators	Typists, class B	Office girls	File clerks, class B
Atlanta	$96.00	$97.00	$80.50	$94.50	$83.00	$71.50	$78.00	$89.00	$75.50	$73.00	$75.50	$62.50	$59.00	$62.50
Birmingham	93.50	90.00	85.50	94.00	79.50	71.50	65.00	86.00	72.50	61.50	67.50	60.50	60.00	58.50
Boston	92.00	88.50	83.00	82.00	77.00	73.50	73.00	75.50	70.50	68.00	75.50	63.00	56.50	61.50
Buffalo	99.50	99.00	84.50	94.50	82.00	80.00	75.00	87.00	75.50	64.00	76.50	63.00	60.50	59.50
Chicago	104.00	100.50	95.00	94.00	91.50	82.50	81.50	88.00	81.00	77.00	80.50	70.50	65.00	70.00
Cleveland	103.50	100.00	90.00	95.00	89.00	83.00	81.50	87.50	79.50	72.00	79.50	68.50	62.00	67.00
Dallas	92.50	87.50	76.50	89.50	79.00	70.50	71.50	77.00	70.00	69.00	69.00	59.00	57.00	60.00
Kansas City	96.50	89.50	87.00	88.50	83.50	78.50	79.50	84.50	71.00	66.50	70.50	63.50	64.50	60.50
Los Angeles-Long Beach	108.50	105.50	98.50	98.00	99.50	86.00	96.50	94.50	83.50	75.00	84.50	75.50	69.00	69.50
Memphis	81.00	89.00	76.00	93.00	72.50	71.00	66.00	75.50	65.50	62.50	53.00	56.00	58.00	63.00
Minneapolis-St. Paul	91.00	87.50	84.00	82.00	80.50	72.00	76.00	77.50	70.50	64.50	71.50	62.50	54.50	60.50
New York City	104.50	99.50	91.00	95.00	91.50	82.00	85.00	86.50	79.00	77.50	83.50	71.00	63.00	72.00
Philadelphia	96.50	90.50	79.00	86.50	78.50	80.00	75.00	82.50	70.50	67.50	74.00	62.00	58.00	60.50
Pittsburgh	100.00	99.00	86.00	91.50	87.00	78.00	80.50	91.00	78.50	70.50	79.50	67.50	63.00	67.00
Portland (Oreg.)	94.50	91.50	92.50	90.00	89.50	77.00	86.50	81.00	79.50	75.50	76.00	65.00	58.50	71.50
San Francisco-Oakland	106.00	99.50	99.50	95.50	100.50	83.50	94.00	90.00	86.00	81.50	84.00	72.50	68.50	67.50
Seattle	103.50	94.00	88.50	90.00	92.00	82.50	89.50	86.00	79.50	76.00	81.50	68.50	63.50	72.00

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Wages and Related Benefits, Part I: 80 Metropolitan Areas, 1963-64." Bull. No. 1385-82. December 1964.

69. Earnings in Selected Manufacturing Industries

Detailed information on a nationwide basis or on an area basis is available on women's earnings in selected manufacturing and service industries recently surveyed by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Area-centered wage surveys rather than industrywide surveys are sometimes conducted in manufacturing industries that are highly concentrated in a few areas of the country.

Cotton textiles.—The largest of the textile industries, cotton textiles, in May 1963 employed 85,538 women, who constituted 38 percent of all workers in that industry (table 65). Since 93 percent of the workers were located in the Southeast, women's average hourly earnings in the Nation ($1.47) were almost the same as in the Southeast ($1.46). The 4,000 women workers located in New England averaged $1.55 in hourly earnings. Numerically, the major jobs held in this industry were those of ring-frame spinner, yarn winder, and weaver. Almost all of the ring-frame spinners, yarn winders, and battery hands were women. Their average hourly earnings were about the same as those of men. Weavers were the highest paid—

Table 65.—Average Hourly Earnings in Selected Occupations in the Cotton Textile Industry, by Sex, United States and Southeast Region, May 1963

Region and selected occupation	Women			
	Number	As percent of total employed	Average hourly earnings [1]	
			Women	Men
United States	85,538	37.9	$1.47	$1.56
Battery hands	9,869	94.3	1.36	1.38
Inspectors, cloth, machine	4,472	84.4	1.42	1.48
Spinners, ring-frame	20,039	99.1	1.48	1.48
Warper tenders	1,061	56.9	1.48	1.55
Weavers	9,950	48.7	1.73	1.77
Winders, yarn	16,772	98.1	1.44	1.51
Southeast	79,167	37.8	1.46	1.56
Battery hands	9,197	95.1	1.36	1.37
Inspectors, cloth, machine	4,048	85.5	1.42	1.49
Spinners, ring-frame	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Warper tenders	945	55.4	1.49	1.52
Weavers	9,174	48.8	1.73	1.75
Winders, yarn	15,684	98.5	1.43	1.44

[1] Excludes premium pay for overtime and for work on weekends, holidays, and late shifts.
[2] Not available.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Industry Wage Survey—Cotton Textiles, May 1963." Bull. No. 1410. August 1964.

women weavers averaged $1.73 (men, $1.77) nationwide and $2.00 (men, $2.35) in the Middle Atlantic Region.

Differences in average pay levels between women and men result partly from variations in the sex composition of the work force in plants and in jobs with different pay levels. Three-fifths of the women, for example, were employed in four occupations (battery hand, cloth inspector, spinner, and winder) that require less skill than the jobs typically men's (card grinder, loom fixer, and machinist).

Synthetic textiles.—The 32,825 women employed by plants engaged in the manufacture of synthetic textiles in May 1963 were 39 percent of all workers in this industry. Women averaged $1.47 an hour (men, $1.63) (table 66). Sixty-nine percent of the women in this industry were located in the Southeast. Their main occupations were yarn winder, ring-frame spinner, and weaver. Most of the yarn winders and ring-frame spinners were women. Women's hourly earnings were either a little lower than or the same as men's, with one exception: women twister tenders in the Southeast (57 percent of all the women in this occupation on a nationwide basis) had hourly earnings of $1.38 an hour compared with $1.37 for men. The highest paid oc-

Table 66.—Average Hourly Earnings in Selected Occupations in the Synthetic Textile Industry, by Sex, United States and Southeast Region, May 1963

Region and selected occupation	Women		Average hourly earnings [1]	
	Number	As percent of total employed	Women	Men
United States	32,825	39.0	$1.47	$1.63
Battery hands	1,981	82.7	1.35	1.43
Inspectors, cloth, machine	2,101	81.3	1.43	1.53
Spinners, ring-frame	3,259	92.2	1.44	1.52
Twister tenders, ring-frame	1,847	65.6	1.39	1.39
Weavers	3,101	32.5	1.86	1.91
Winders, yarn	9,652	96.7	1.42	1.42
Southeast	22,719	36.8	1.44	1.57
Battery hands	1,653	91.1	1.35	1.36
Inspectors, cloth, machine	1,401	79.1	1.41	1.51
Spinner, ring-frame	2,922	93.5	1.42	1.49
Twister tenders, ring-frame	1,049	55.3	1.38	1.37
Weavers	1,925	31.1	1.79	1.80
Winders, yarn	6,439	98.4	1.42	1.44

[1] Excludes premium pay for overtime and for work on weekends, holidays, and late shifts.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Industry Wage Survey—Synthetic Textiles, May 1963." Bull. No. 1414. August 1964.

cupation was weaver. Women weavers in the Nation averaged $1.86 (men, $1.91).

As a group, women averaged 16 cents an hour less than men. The difference was 13 cents in the Southeast, 22 cents in New England, and 34 cents in the Middle Atlantic Region. Differences in average pay levels between women and men are partly the result of variations in the sex composition among plants and among jobs with divergent pay levels.

Women's and misses' dresses.—Wage data were collected in March–April 1963 from plants manufacturing women's and misses' dresses in 12 metropolitan areas. Nearly three-fifths of the estimated 93,000 production workers (both sexes) covered in the wage survey were in New York City. Women production workers in New York numbered 40,150 and received the highest hourly earnings—$2.24; about one-third were paid $2.50 or more an hour (table 67). They received their lowest earnings in Dallas and Cleveland—$1.47 and $1.49, respectively. The proportions of women paid less than $1.25 an hour were far larger in these 2 areas than in the other 10 centers surveyed: in Dallas it was 24 percent and in Cleveland 22 percent.

Table 67.—Average Hourly Earnings in Women's and Misses' Dress Industry, by Sex, 12 Metropolitan Areas, March–April 1963

Metropolitan area	Number of women production workers	Average hourly earnings [1]		Percent of women receiving—	
		Women	Men	Under $1.25	$2.50 and over
Boston	1,731	$1.91	$3.12	7.5	17.0
Chicago	2,351	1.82	2.74	4.5	10.4
Cleveland	650	1.49	2.03	22.1	2.4
Dallas	2,417	1.47	1.78	23.7	1.6
Fall River and New Bedford	5,225	1.76	1.88	4.4	8.8
Los Angeles-Long Beach	5,137	1.93	2.62	8.9	18.6
Newark and Jersey City	4,193	2.00	3.07	6.4	21.2
New York City	40,150	2.24	3.27	2.8	32.6
Paterson-Clifton-Passaic	1,801	2.15	4.33	1.4	28.3
Philadelphia	3,803	1.87	2.42	4.2	13.5
St. Louis	2,033	1.84	2.33	2.9	10.5
Wilkes-Barre-Hazleton	6,561	1.72	1.82	6.5	7.3

[1] Excludes premium pay for overtime and for work on weekends, holidays, and late shifts.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Industry Wage Survey—Women's and Misses' Dresses, March-April 1963." Bull. No. 1391. January 1964.

About three-fourths of the workers in the dress manufacturing industry in New York City were women. In the other areas studied the proportions ranged from five-sixths in Boston to more than nine-tenths in six areas.

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Women had lower average earnings than men had in all 12 centers surveyed. Differences were smallest in Wilkes-Barre-Hazleton (women, $1.72; men, $1.82) and greatest in Paterson-Clifton-Passaic (women, $2.15; men, $4.33). Women's lower average earnings reflect the employment of numerous women in the lower paid jobs of examiner, sewer, section system operator, and thread trimmer, while most men were employed in the higher paid jobs of cutter, marker, and presser. The wage variations among the areas partly reflect differences in market influences and manufacturing processes. In New York, for example, the single hand tailor system of sewing is predominant, while in Dallas and Cleveland—areas which had the lowest average earnings—the section system is predominant.

70. Earnings in Selected Service Industries

In addition to its area-centered wage surveys in manufacturing industries, the Bureau of Labor Statistics made wage surveys in June 1963 in three major service industries employing large numbers of women: hotels and motels, laundries and cleaning services, and eating and drinking places. In contrast to the geographical concentration of the manufacturing industries discussed previously, service industries are located in almost every city and town. Wage information, however, was obtained only for selected metropolitan areas. Generally, occupational averages were highest in Pacific Coast States and lowest in Southern States.

Hotels and motels.—The wage survey of employees in selected hotel occupations in 23 metropolitan areas indicated that the largest numbers of women were employed as chambermaids, elevator operators, and waitresses. Average hourly wages of chambermaids ranged from 51 cents in Memphis and New Orleans to $1.70 in San Francisco-Oakland (table 68).

For women elevator operators, the range was from 32 cents an hour in Memphis to $1.83 in New York City and San Francisco-Oakland. Elevator operators usually had higher average wages than maids did, but in a majority of the areas the difference was less than 10 cents an hour. In 9 of the 14 areas for which comparisons of the average hourly wages of men and women elevator operators could be made, the difference amounted to 5 cents or less.

Waitresses had an average hourly wage of 22 cents in Atlanta and $1.50 in San Francisco-Oakland. In New York City the average was 80 cents. Waitresses receive tips in addition to wages, and the majority reported that they received one or more free meals a day.

As a group all nonsupervisory women employees had average hourly wages of $1.04, while men as a group averaged $1.32. In the South

Table 68.—Average Hourly Wages of Women in Selected Hotel[1] Occupations, 23 Metropolitan Areas, June 1963

Metropolitan area	Chambermaids		Elevator operators		Waitresses	
	Number	Average hourly wages[2]	Number	Average hourly wages[2]	Number	Average hourly wages[2]
Northeast:						
Boston	725	$1.24	------	------	404	$0.93
Buffalo	265	1.20	19	$1.28	200	.90
Newark and Jersey City	170	.98	10	.96	580	1.00
New York City	6,148	1.51	217	1.83	115	.80
Philadelphia	493	1.13	94	1.15	183	.75
Pittsburgh	609	1.39	33	1.62	532	.72
South:						
Atlanta	527	.53	95	.48	84	.22
Memphis	277	.51	13	.32	96	.29
Miami	1,277	.85	67	.85	812	.51
New Orleans	549	.51	------	------	208	.32
North Central:						
Chicago	3,014	1.30	204	1.43	617	.88
Cincinnati	258	1.07	33	1.15	193	.80
Cleveland	547	1.15	64	1.22	295	.80
Detroit	659	1.13	56	1.41	233	.94
Indianapolis	273	.84	42	.82	169	.39
Kansas City	529	.93	47	.93	253	.63
Milwaukee	244	1.25	------	------	214	.85
Minneapolis-St. Paul	519	1.29	35	1.37	557	1.06
St. Louis	832	1.05	52	1.21	169	.83
West:						
Denver	527	1.07	16	1.05	358	.89
Los Angeles-Long Beach	1,482	1.26	47	1.53	457	1.15
Portland	252	1.34	12	1.42	245	1.24
San Francisco-Oakland	1,113	1.70	23	1.83	413	1.50

[1] Refers to year-round hotels, tourist courts, and motels.
[2] Excludes tips and the value of free meals, room, and uniforms, as well as premium pay for overtime.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Industry Wage Survey—Hotels and Motels, June 1963." Bull. No. 1406. July 1964.

nonsupervisory women employees as a group were paid 17 cents an hour less than men; in the North Central Region, 24 cents less; and in the Northeast and West, about 30 cents less.

Laundry and cleaning services.—Women employed in this industry in 24 metropolitan areas in June 1963 received hourly wages ranging from 79 cents in Memphis to $1.76 in San Francisco-Oakland (table 69). At least three-fifths of the women earned less than $1.00 an hour

in Atlanta, Memphis, Miami, and New Orleans. In all 24 major areas women's average earnings were less than men's. Occupations in which women predominated were retail receiving clerk, flatwork machine finisher, and machine presser of shirts and laundered wearing apparel. Flatwork finisher was numerically the most important occupation of women. Average hourly earnings of women in this occupation ranged from 67 cents in Memphis and 68 cents in New Orleans to $1.62 in San Francisco-Oakland. Operators of shirt-pressing machines averaged more than flatwork finishers in all areas except Minneapolis-St. Paul, where both averages were $1.46 an hour.

Eating and drinking places.—A wage study made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in June 1963 indicated that nearly three-fifths of the industry's nonsupervisory employees were women and more than half of these were waitresses. Among all workers, women were seven-tenths in the North Central Region, three-fifths in the South, about half in the West, and two-fifths in the Northwest. Within each region the proportions of women were substantially higher in nonmetropolitan areas.

Average hourly wages of women cashiers employed in eating and drinking places of the 24 areas studied ranged from 97 cents in Memphis to $2.13 in San Francisco-Oakland (table 70). In Los Angeles-Long Beach and in New York City—both areas in which more than a thousand were employed—their average wages were $1.75 and $1.67, respectively.

Women counter attendants averaged 76 cents an hour in Atlanta and $1.94 in San Francisco-Oakland. Areas with the greatest number (over a thousand) employed were New York City, Chicago, and Los Angeles-Long Beach, where their average hourly wages were $1.46, $1.30, and $1.20, respectively.

About 21,000 waitresses were employed in Los Angeles-Long Beach; 11,000, in Chicago; and 10,000, in New York City. Their average hourly wages in these areas were $1.11, 71 cents, and 99 cents, respectively. The highest paid waitresses were in San Francisco-Oakland ($1.66 an hour); the lowest paid, in Miami (38 cents an hour). Over nine-tenths of the establishments surveyed indicated that most of the waitresses received tips in addition to the employer-paid wages, and at least a majority of the waitresses were provided free meals.

Pantrywoman was the most important kitchen occupation for women. Average hourly wages of pantrywomen ranged from 68 cents an hour in Memphis to $2.03 in San Francisco-Oakland. The largest numbers of them were in New York City (637), Detroit (619), and Chicago (594), where their hourly earnings were $1.52, $1.22, and $1.43, respectively.

Table 69.—Average Hourly Earnings in Power Laundries,[1] by Sex, 24 Metropolitan Areas, June 1963

Metropolitan area	Number of women plant workers	Average hourly earnings [2]		Percent of women receiving—	
		Women	Men	Under $1.00	$1.50 and over
Northeast:					
Boston	2,751	$1.37	$1.80	(3)	21.0
Buffalo	1,287	1.34	1.79	(3)	17.7
Newark and Jersey City	4,093	1.36	1.80	(3)	22.1
New York City	9,057	1.38	1.70	(3)	21.1
Philadelphia	4,610	1.33	1.73	.3	17.5
Pittsburgh	2,425	1.20	1.55	2.2	8.9
South:					
Atlanta	2,288	.84	1.38	76.0	1.5
Baltimore	2,366	1.06	1.50	34.0	6.4
Memphis	1,485	.79	1.13	90.0	.9
Miami	1,920	1.01	1.50	59.9	6.5
New Orleans	884	.85	1.33	77.9	2.6
North Central:					
Chicago	10,558	1.33	1.92	(3)	22.5
Cincinnati	1,271	1.37	1.78	3.4	22.4
Cleveland	2,654	1.21	1.71	19.4	13.5
Detroit	5,008	1.35	1.70	5.4	27.6
Indianapolis	1,572	1.17	1.53	23.4	8.3
Kansas City	1,476	1.19	1.62	41.6	13.6
Milwaukee	1,883	1.27	1.70	5.1	15.3
Minneapolis-St. Paul	1,812	1.51	2.01	(3)	38.5
St. Louis	2,837	1.18	1.47	29.4	10.8
West:					
Denver	1,360	1.24	1.71	6.5	11.0
Los Angeles-Long Beach	7,483	1.46	1.94	(3)	32.1
Portland	855	1.55	2.04	(3)	68.8
San Francisco-Oakland	3,067	1.76	2.62	(3)	99.3

[1] Includes linen supply and industrial launderers and dyeing and cleaning plants (except rug-cleaning).
[2] Excludes premium pay for overtime and for work on weekends, holidays, and late shifts.
[3] Under $1.05: Boston (1.1), Chicago (2.0), Minneapolis-St. Paul (1.3); under $1.10; Portland (0.4); under $1.15: Buffalo (0.2), Newark-Jersey City (0.6), New York City (0.7), Los Angeles-Long Beach (1.4); and under $1.50: San Francisco-Oakland (0.7).

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Industry Wage Survey—Laundry and Cleaning Services, June 1963." Bull. No. 1401, June 1964.

71. Earnings in Nonprofessional Hospital Occupations

A survey of earnings and employment conditions of selected hospital personnel was conducted in 15 large metropolitan areas in mid-1963 by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The occupations for which wage information was obtained included both professional and non-

Table 70.—Average Hourly Wages of Women in Selected Occupations in Eating and Drinking Places, 24 Metropolitan Areas, June 1963

Metropolitan area	Cashiers		Counter attendants		Waitresses		Pantrywomen	
	Number	Average hourly wages [1]	Number	Average hourly wages [1]	Number	Average hourly wages [1]	Number	Average hourly wages [1]
Northeast:								
Boston	783	$1.42	791	$1.33	7,479	$0.82	275	$1.33
Buffalo	104	1.21	142	1.14	2,068	.94	125	1.27
New York City	1,128	1.67	1,336	1.46	10,028	.99	637	1.52
Newark and Jersey City	251	1.33	130	1.23	3,179	.73	104	1.35
Philadelphia	352	1.27	551	1.16	7,856	.68	481	1.28
Pittsburgh	201	1.26	189	1.09	3,907	.72	156	1.31
South:								
Atlanta	310	1.27	547	.76	1,774	.48	369	.90
Baltimore	175	1.26	344	1.06	3,082	.47	126	.98
Memphis	.128	.97	41	.88	967	.42	113	.68
Miami	275	1.09	183	.88	3,349	.38	69	1.08
New Orleans	115	1.04	85	.94	1,332	.42	122	.76

North Central:								
Chicago	787	1. 58	1, 104	1. 30	11, 029	. 71	594	1. 43
Cincinnati	126	1. 28	214	1. 22	1, 932	. 79	151	1. 27
Cleveland	371	1. 34	182	1. 11	4, 202	. 73	551	1. 22
Detroit	302	1. 59	383	1. 29	5, 236	. 92	619	1. 22
Indianapolis	103	1. 14	346	1. 00	1, 669	. 56	165	. 98
Kansas City	195	1. 19	220	1. 12	1, 943	. 76	165	1. 11
Milwaukee	35	1. 39	--------	--------	1, 954	. 87	211	1. 33
Minneapolis-St. Paul	157	1. 39	98	1. 26	4, 941	1. 08	304	1. 48
St. Louis	84	1. 06	588	1. 25	1, 482	. 93	205	1. 33
West:								
Denver	185	1. 19	97	1. 05	2, 394	. 87	173	1. 29
Los Angeles-Long Beach	1, 332	1. 75	1, 073	1. 20	20, 698	1. 11	156	1. 72
Portland	87	1. 48	184	1. 37	1, 907	1. 25	109	1. 54
San Francisco-Oakland	283	2. 13	293	1. 94	3, 842	1. 66	138	2. 03

[1] Excludes tips and the value of free meals, rooms, and uniforms, as well as premium pay for overtime and for work on weekends, holidays, and late shifts.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Industry Wage Survey—Eating and Drinking Places, June 1963." Bull. No. 1400. June 1964.

professional staff. Salaries received by professional hospital personnel are discussed in sections 74 and 75 in this chapter.

Among the nearly million workers (both sexes) covered by the scope of the survey, nearly half were nonprofessional employees other than clerical workers. Their main occupations were nurses' aide, practical nurse, housekeeping and food service worker, maintenance worker, and laundry worker. Among women workers studied in the survey, nurses' aide was numerically the largest single occupation (111,196). Practical nurses numbered 58,435; laundry flatwork finishers, 9,754; kitchen helpers, 29,941; and maids, 38,650.

In the metropolitan areas surveyed, median weekly earnings of women nurses' aides ranged from $36.50 in Memphis to $72.50 in San Francisco-Oakland (table 71). For practical nurses the range was from $52.50 to $76 in the same areas.

Table 71.—Median Earnings of Women in Nonprofessional Hospital [1] Occupations, 15 Metropolitan Areas, Mid-1963

Metropolitan area	Median weekly earnings [2]		Median hourly earnings [2]		
	Nurses' aides	Practical nurses	Laundry-finishers, flatwork (machine)	Kitchen helpers	Maids
Atlanta	$37.00	$53.00	$0.67	$0.66	$0.58
Baltimore	46.00	57.00	1.05	1.07	1.05
Boston	54.00	66.50	1.28	1.29	1.29
Buffalo	52.00	65.50	1.30	1.28	1.31
Chicago	54.50	70.00	1.32	1.31	1.28
Cincinnati	47.50	64.00	1.18	1.14	1.14
Cleveland	52.50	67.50	1.27	1.25	1.27
Dallas	42.50	53.00	----------	.79	1.02
Los Angeles-Long Beach	61.00	72.50	1.43	1.38	1.40
Memphis	36.50	52.50	.70	.74	.69
Minneapolis-St. Paul	65.00	69.50	1.65	1.64	1.64
New York City	58.50	72.00	1.51	1.48	1.51
Philadelphia	43.50	53.50	1.07	1.01	1.05
Portland (Oreg.)	60.50	64.00	1.49	1.52	1.51
San Francisco-Oakland	72.50	76.00	1.83	1.73	1.81

[1] Covers those in nongovernment hospitals.

[2] Weekly and hourly earnings are straight-time earnings, excluding extra pay for work on late shifts, as well as value of room, board, or other perquisites. Weekly earnings are rounded to the nearest half dollar.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Industry Wage Survey—Hospitals, Mid-1963." Bull. No. 1409. June 1964.

Laundry flatwork finisher, kitchen helper, and maid are occupations requiring relatively few skills and were among the lowest paid in hospitals. Among the 15 metropolitan areas studied, the lowest hourly earnings in these three occupations were in Atlanta and the highest were in San Francisco-Oakland.

Salaries of Professional Women Workers

Salary studies are not available for women in all types of professional work, but some salary surveys have been made by professional associations for their own membership, or by research organizations, college alumnae associations, or women's organizations. Among salary studies periodically available are those made for school teachers and registered nurses.

72. *Salaries of School Teachers*

Over two-fifths of the 3.3 million women employed in professional and technical occupations in April 1965 were school teachers. The 1.4 million women teachers (except in colleges and universities) represented 69 percent of all noncollege teachers. In elementary schools almost nine-tenths of the teachers were women, and in secondary schools almost half were women.

Teachers' salaries reported by the National Education Association, while not always showing separate averages for men and women, are considered representative of women's salaries because of the sizable proportion of women teachers and because salary differentials based on sex have largely been eliminated. Men teachers, however, may receive higher salaries in some instances, partly because of the subjects they teach and partly because there are relatively more men teachers in high schools than in elementary schools and high school teachers may be paid higher salaries than elementary school teachers.

Although differentials between different levels of the school system have existed in the past, most school districts now have a single salary schedule, based on education and experience, for all teachers in their area. Some, however, pay higher salaries to teachers of vocational education, physical education, and other special courses.

Elementary and secondary school teachers.—Salaries of classroom teachers (both sexes) were estimated by the National Education Association to average (arithmetic mean) $6,235 during the school year 1964–65, with elementary school teachers receiving $6,035 and secondary school teachers $6,503. By comparison, the average salaries of classroom teachers in 1963–64 were: total, $5,995; elementary schools, $5,805; and secondary schools, $6,266. Thus both elementary and secondary school teachers earned about 4 percent more in 1964–65 than in 1963–64.

Detailed information on the number of women classroom teachers and the average salaries paid to all classroom teachers is available by selected geographical areas for the year 1964–65 (table 72).

Women classroom teachers numbered 1.1 million and represented 69 percent of all classroom teachers in the Nation, but their proportion varied from 63 percent of all teachers in the Far West to 77 percent in Hawaii. Compared with the $6,235 average salary of all classroom teachers in the Nation, the average salary ranged in the contiguous United States from $5,036 in the Southeast to $7,524 in the Far West. In Alaska it was $8,360; in Hawaii, $6,060.

Table 72.—Estimated Average[1] Annual Salaries of Classroom Teachers,[2] by Area, 1964–65

Area	Women		Average annual salary (men and women)	Percent of all classroom teachers receiving—	
	Number	As percent of total		Under $4,500	$6,500 and over
50 States and D.C.	1,123,717	68.6	$6,235	14.3	33.8
New England	60,415	66.6	6,592	5.0	42.6
Mideast	215,599	67.6	7,049	.4	50.6
Southeast	272,393	76.3	5,036	40.7	6.7
Great Lakes	210,709	66.0	6,467	6.3	44.6
Plains	102,617	68.6	5,669	20.7	21.4
Southwest	99,458	68.6	5,587	17.5	11.1
Rocky Mountain	31,811	64.4	5,821	11.3	18.1
Far West	124,908	62.7	7,524	.1	62.5
Alaska	1,617	65.3	8,360	.....	93.3
Hawaii	4,190	77.2	6,060	5.5	42.8

[1] Arithmetic mean.
[2] Elementary and secondary teachers.

Source: National Education Association: "Estimates of School Statistics, 1964–65." Research Report 1964-R17. December 1964. (Copyright 1964 by the National Education Association. All rights reserved.)

Fourteen percent of all teachers received less than $4,500, with the highest proportion of classroom teachers in this category in the Southeast (41 percent). In contrast, 34 percent of the teachers received an average salary of $6,500 or more, with the highest proportion for the contiguous United States in the Far West (63 percent), and for the noncontiguous United States in Alaska (93 percent).

Minimum and maximum salaries of teachers differ considerably among the various school systems. In a survey of minimum and maximum salaries of teachers employed for the school year 1964–65 in systems with enrollment of at least 1,200 pupils, the National Education Association found that median salaries of beginning teachers with a bachelor's degree were $5,000 (enrollment of 100,000

or more pupils), $4,780 (enrollment of 50,000 to 99,999), $4,800 (enrollment of 3,000 to 49,999), and $4,700 (enrollment of 1,200 to 2,999).[8] The median minimum salaries of teachers with a master's degree were $5,270 (enrollment of 100,000 or more), $5,175 (enrollment of 25,000 to 99,999), $5,200 (enrollment of 6,000 to 24,999), $5,100 (enrollment of 3,000 to 5,999), and $5,000 (enrollment of 1,200 to 2,999).

The 1964–65 maximum salaries paid "in recognition of experience" to teachers with a bachelor's degree were about 40 to 60 percent above minimum salaries. For those with a master's degree the maximum salaries exceeded the minimums by 46 to 61 percent. The medians of the maximum salaries obtained by noncollege teachers with the highest level of preparation ranged from $7,586 to $9,410.

College and university teachers.—Women represented 18 percent of the faculties in colleges and universities and numbered 23,200 in 1963–64 (table 73). As computed by the National Education Association, the median annual salary received by women college teachers for 9 months of full-time teaching was $6,940, and the range was from $5,802 for instructors to $9,787 for professors. Differences in medians from one major teaching level to the next were at least $1,200.

Table 73.—Median Annual Salaries of Teaching Staff in Colleges and Universities, by Sex, 1963–64

Teaching staff	Number		Median annual salary	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
Total	23,163	102,331	$6,940	$8,342
Professors	3,043	29,475	9,787	11,240
Associate professors	4,877	25,426	8,229	8,998
Assistant professors	7,648	30,646	7,021	7,573
Instructors	7,595	16,784	5,802	6,209

Source: National Education Association: "Salaries Paid and Salary Practices in Universities, Colleges, and Junior Colleges, 1963–64." Research Report 1964–R 3. February 1964. (Copyright 1964 by National Education Association. All rights reserved.)

A higher median salary ($7,642) was received by women teachers in public universities with enrollment between 5,000 and 9,999 than in any other type of institution of higher learning. State colleges paid the next highest median salary ($7,331), and small private colleges with enrollment of less than 500 paid the lowest ($5,549).

Salaries for administrative positions in colleges and universities were not reported separately for women. Among 26 positions listed

[8] "Salary Schedules for Classroom Teachers, 1964–65." Research Report 1964–R 13. National Education Association. 1964.

for administrative officers, deans of women received the second lowest median salary ($8,216). Also low were the salaries of registrars ($8,142) and head librarians ($8,883). Among deans of professional and graduate schools were deans of home economics ($15,250) and of nursing ($13,000)—two posts usually held by women. All administrative salaries covered a full 12 months (1963–64).

Junior college teachers.—Junior colleges also were surveyed for salary information in 1963–64. The 3,991 women teachers employed by public junior colleges had a median salary of $7,522; the 1,005 women teachers in private junior colleges, $5,346. With salaries computed on the basis of 9 months of service in 1963–64, women's medians were lower than men's by $393 in public junior colleges and by $685 in private junior colleges.

73. Salaries of Professional and Technical Workers in Private Industry

A survey of selected professional, administrative, technical, and clerical salaries paid by private industry, made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in February–March 1964, indicated variations in salaries among different occupations.[9] In all these occupations women were a relatively small proportion of the total employed—at the most between 30 and 34 percent of tracers and at the least less than 10 percent of class I directors of personnel and class II accountants, engineering technicians, and managers of office services. The highest median salary ($9,732) was received by directors of personnel (class I); the lowest ($4,275), by tracers. Job analysts (class I), of whom women constituted from 20 to 24 percent of those employed, had a median salary of $6,828. Job analysts (class II), of whom women constituted from 10 to 14 percent of those employed, had a median salary of $7,380.

74. Salaries in Professional Hospital Nursing Occupations

Hospital occupations cover a wide range of skills and functions. Full-time registered professional nurses and other professional and technical employees accounted for about one-fifth of all hospital personnel in mid-1963. About one-tenth were office clerical employees; and, as shown in section 71, about one-half were other nonprofessional employees. The remainder were part-time workers and those employed in executive and administrative positions.[10]

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[9] "National Survey of Professional, Administrative, Technical, and Clerical Pay. February–March 1964." Bull. No. 1422. Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor. 1964.

[10] "Industry Wage Survey—Hospitals, Mid-1963." Bull. No. 1409. Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor. June 1964.

Of the women in hospital nursing professions in the 15 areas surveyed by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in mid-1963, highest median salaries were received by directors of nursing (table 74). In most of the areas supervisors of nurses received the second highest salaries, followed by nursing instructors, head nurses, and general duty nurses. For supervisors of nurses, nursing instructors, and head nurses, the lowest weekly reported salaries were received in Atlanta and the highest in San Francisco-Oakland. Directors of nursing and general duty nurses were paid highest salaries in New York City. In general, salaries were higher in State and local government hospitals than in private hospitals. Also, they were higher in large cities than in small ones and in the California centers than in other areas. Salaries were the lowest in the South—general duty nurses in the South received 21 percent less weekly, on the average, than those in the West.

Hospital nurses worked 40 hours a week in most areas surveyed. For work after 40 hours, they usually received either compensatory time off or straight-time pay. Nurses on late shifts generally were paid a shift differential.

Table 74.—Median Weekly Salaries[1] of Women in Selected Hospital[2] Nursing Occupations, 15 Metropolitan Areas, Mid-1963

Metropolitan area	*Directors of nursing*	*Supervisors of nurses*	*Head nurses*	*General duty nurses*	*Nursing instructors*
Atlanta	----	$89.50	$81.50	$75.00	$85.50
Baltimore	$132.50	101.50	93.00	81.00	106.00
Boston	164.00	109.50	101.00	86.00	107.50
Buffalo	----	119.00	108.00	91.00	112.00
Chicago	157.00	116.50	103.00	93.00	114.50
Cincinnati	----	118.50	98.50	85.50	99.50
Cleveland	150.00	120.00	108.50	93.00	114.50
Dallas	----	101.50	92.50	83.50	----
Los Angeles-Long Beach	160.50	117.50	109.00	94.50	116.00
Memphis	----	----	87.50	75.00	93.00
Minneapolis-St. Paul	165.00	117.00	105.00	89.50	104.00
New York City	177.50	116.00	109.00	95.50	120.50
Philadelphia	155.00	100.00	91.00	79.50	102.50
Portland (Oreg.)	----	107.00	95.50	87.50	----
San Francisco-Oakland	161.50	124.00	113.50	93.50	123.50

[1] Weekly salaries are straight-time earnings excluding extra pay for work on late shifts, as well as value of room, board, or other perquisites, and are rounded to the nearest half dollar.

[2] Covers those in nongovernment hospitals.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Industry Wage Survey—Hospitals, Mid-1963." Bull. No. 1409. June 1964.

Registered nurses represented the second largest group of professional women, according to the 1960 Census of Population. At the time of the census count, employed registered nurses numbered about 568,000. The American Nurses' Association estimated that 63 percent of all female registered nurses were employed by hospitals and similar institutions in 1962 (table 75). About 12 percent of all nurses were private-duty nurses. The remainder were public health, school, industrial, or office nurses, or were working in schools of nursing or in other fields.

Table 75.—Women Professional Registered Nurses, by Field of Employment, 1962

Field of employment	*Number*	*Percent distribution*
Total	526, 522	100. 0
Hospital or other institution	331, 211	62. 9
School of nursing	16, 126	3. 1
Private duty	63, 647	12. 1
Public health	23, 877	4. 5
School nurse	16, 658	3. 2
Industrial	17, 319	3. 3
Office nurse (physician's or dentist's)	43, 425	8. 2
Other specified field	2, 465	. 5
Field not reported	11, 794	2. 2

Source: American Nurses' Association: "Facts About Nursing." 1965 Edition.

Private-duty nurses are self-employed, and their compensation is individually determined. The median daily fee of private-duty nurses was $20 for a basic 8-hour day, according to a survey made by the American Nurses' Association in November 1962.[11] Ninety-five percent of the nurses charged at least $16 a day. They worked a median number of 18 days in January 1962 and had a median income of $320 for the month.

Office nurses had an annual median salary of $4,500 for full-time work when surveyed by the American Nurses' Association in July 1964.[12] Their salaries were generally lowest in the Southeast ($3,900) and highest ($4,980) in Pacific Coast States. About 43 percent of the office nurses regularly worked 40 hours a week; 37 percent, between 30 and 40 hours; and 12 percent, more than 40 hours. For 8 percent there was no report of hours worked.

[11] "Facts About Nursing." American Nurses' Association. 1965 Edition.
[12] *Ibid.*

Local public health nurses in staff nurse positions received median annual salaries of $5,313 in official agencies and $4,829 in nonofficial agencies, as reported in a 1963 survey by the National League for Nursing.[13] By region, salaries were highest in the Pacific States, next highest in the Middle Atlantic States, and lowest in the Southeast.

School nurses employed in public schools received average (mean) salaries of $6,125 (enrollment of 25,000 or more), $5,754 (enrollment of 3,000 to 24,999), and $5,095 (enrollment of 300 to 2,999), according to a National Education Association study made for the school year 1962–63.[14]

Nurse educators employed on a full-time basis received a median annual salary of $6,000, as reported in October 1963 in an American Nurses' Association survey of nursing educational programs.[15] Median salaries were $5,580 for teachers in professional hospital nursing schools and $6,860 for teachers in collegiate schools.

Industrial nurses' salaries vary considerably among metropolitan areas. Their salaries are surveyed annually by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Between July 1963 and June 1964, women industrial nurses received weekly salaries ranging from a median of $82 in Greenville, S.C., to a median of $121 in Beaumont-Port Arthur, Tex. (table 76). This would mean a range of $4,264 to $6,292 for a full year's (52 weeks) work.

Table 76.—Median Weekly Salaries[1] of Women Industrial Nurses, 59 Metropolitan Areas, 1963–64

Date	Metropolitan area	Number	Median weekly salary
6–64	Akron	69	$107.00
3–64	Albany-Schenectady-Troy	45	106.50
2–64	Allentown-Bethlehem-Easton	35	103.00
5–64	Atlanta	81	107.50
11–63	Baltimore	139	104.50
5–64	Beaumont-Port Arthur	37	121.00
4–64	Birmingham	37	101.00
10–63	Boston	277	98.00
12–63	Buffalo	182	107.00
4–64	Canton	60	106.00
4–64	Charleston	45	113.50
9–63	Chattanooga	23	97.00
4–64	Chicago	659	107.50
3–64	Cincinnati	103	106.00
9–63	Cleveland	245	108.50

See footnote at end of table.

[13] "Yearly Review, 1963." National League for Nursing.

[14] "Twenty-first Biennial Salary Survey of Public School Employees, 1962–63." Research Report 1963–R 7. National Education Association. 1964.

[15] "Facts About Nursing." American Nurses' Association. 1965 Edition.

Table 76.—Median Weekly Salaries[1] of Women Industrial Nurses, 59 Metropolitan Areas, 1963–64—Continued

Date	Metropolitan area	Number	Median weekly salary
11–63	Columbus	56	$99.50
11–63	Dallas	58	98.50
10–63	Davenport-Rock Island-Moline	30	111.00
1–64	Dayton	70	112.00
12–63	Denver	52	103.00
2–64	Des Moines	21	104.00
1–64	Detroit	395	116.00
11–63	Fort Worth	31	110.50
5–64	Greenville	19	82.00
6–64	Houston	74	113.50
12–63	Indianapolis	131	110.50
11–63	Kansas City	86	106.50
6–64	Lawrence-Haverhill	24	98.00
3–64	Los Angeles-Long Beach	514	117.00
2–64	Louisville	50	103.50
1–64	Memphis	28	98.00
12–63	Miami	28	91.50
4–64	Milwaukee	187	105.00
1–64	Minneapolis-St. Paul	119	100.50
5–64	Muskegon-Muskegon Heights	18	94.00
2–64	Newark and Jersey City	279	108.50
1–64	New Haven	53	102.50
2–64	New Orleans	45	104.50
4–64	New York (SMSA)	646	111.00
10–63	Omaha	27	100.00
5–64	Paterson-Clifton-Passaic	78	109.50
11–63	Philadelphia	397	103.00
1–64	Pittsburgh	297	108.00
11–63	Portland (Me.)	15	85.00
5–64	Portland (Oreg.-Wash.)	26	105.00
5–64	Providence-Pawtucket	74	89.50
11–63	Richmond	57	104.50
4–64	Rockford	41	91.50
10–63	St. Louis	182	103.00
9–63	San Bernardino-Riverside-Ontario	32	108.50
9–63	San Diego	27	114.50
1–64	San Francisco-Oakland	124	114.00
9–63	Seattle	69	108.50
3–64	South Bend	21	101.00
2–64	Toledo	59	106.00
12–63	Trenton	38	106.50
3–64	Waterbury	28	102.50
9–63	Wichita	28	110.50
6–64	Worcester	49	95.50

[1] Weekly salaries are straight-time earnings.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Occupational Wage Survey. Bull. No. 1385. September 1963–August 1964.

75. Salaries of Professional and Technical Hospital Personnel (Nonnursing)

Among women employed in private hospitals in professional occupations other than nursing, *medical social workers* generally were the highest paid in 1963 (table 77). Their highest median salary ($137.50) was in San Francisco-Oakland; their lowest ($101), in Philadelphia. *Medical record librarians* were paid more than dietitians in some areas and less in others; their highest weekly salary ($125) was in New York City and their lowest ($92) in Philadelphia. The median weekly salary of *dietitians* ranged from a low of $89 in Dallas to a high of $108 in Buffalo. *Medical technologists* received their lowest median weekly salary ($78.50) in Philadelphia and their highest ($120.50) in San Francisco-Oakland.

Physical therapists generally received higher earnings than did medical technologists; therapists had their lowest median weekly salary ($88) in Boston and their highest ($113.50) in Los Angeles-Long Beach. *X-ray technicians* were the lowest paid of any of these occupations—their median salary ranged from $66.50 a week in Philadelphia to $93.50 a week in the two California centers.

76. Salaries of Scientists

A report on the economic and professional characteristics of approximately 224,000 full-time employed civilian United States scientists listed on the National Science Foundation's National Register of Scientific and Technical Personnel in 1964 gives information on the salaries of women scientists by major scientific field.

Women scientists were 8 percent of all registered scientists and numbered 17,104 (table 78). Three-fourths of the women scientists were in four major fields: chemistry (25 percent), psychology (22 percent), biology (18 percent), and mathematics (10 percent). Subfields in which the greatest numbers of women were found were clinical psychology, biochemistry, organic chemistry, analytical chemistry, numerical methods and computation, and microbiology. Educational attainment of women scientists was high: 32 percent had a doctorate, 2 percent had a professional medical degree, 38 percent had a master's degree, and 27 percent had a bachelor's degree. Fewer than 1 percent reported less than a bachelor's degree.

The greatest number of women Ph. D.'s was among psychologists and biological scientists. Women with a master's degree were primarily psychologists, chemists, biological scientists, or mathematicians. Women scientists with only a bachelor's degree were mainly chemists.

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Table 77.—Median Weekly Salaries[1] of Women in Selected Nonnursing Professional and Technical Hospital[2] Occupations, 15 Metropolitan Areas, Mid-1963

Area	Dietitians	Medical technologists	Physical therapists	X-ray technicians	Medical record librarians	Medical social workers
Atlanta	----------	$84.50	----------	$69.00	----------	----------
Baltimore	$102.00	89.00	$98.50	74.50	$101.50	$120.00
Boston	101.50	85.00	88.00	80.00	106.50	107.50
Buffalo	108.00	91.00	----------	81.00	112.50	----------
Chicago	106.00	96.00	101.00	88.00	107.50	128.50
Cincinnati	100.50	90.50	----------	74.00	----------	----------
Cleveland	106.00	88.50	99.00	78.50	104.00	124.00
Dallas	89.00	90.00	90.00	78.00	----------	----------
Los Angeles-Long Beach	104.50	117.50	113.50	93.50	117.50	133.50
Memphis	----------	83.50	----------	70.50	----------	----------
Minneapolis-St. Paul	102.50	103.50	109.00	76.50	101.50	----------
New York City	103.50	92.00	105.00	88.50	125.00	127.50
Philadelphia	98.50	78.50	101.50	66.50	92.00	101.00
Portland (Oreg.)	----------	93.00	----------	88.00	----------	----------
San Francisco-Oakland	107.50	120.50	109.00	93.50	104.50	137.50

[1] Weekly salaries are straight-time earnings, excluding extra pay for work on late shifts, as well as value of room, board, or other perquisites, and are rounded to the nearest half dollar.

[2] Covers those in nongovernment hospitals.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Industry Wage Survey—Hospitals, Mid-1963." Bull. No. 1409. June 1964.

Table 78.—Number of Women Scientists, by Field and Highest Degree, 1964

Scientific and technical field	Total	Less than bachelor's degree	Highest degree				No report of degree
			Bachelor's	Master's	Professional medical	Ph. D.	
All fields	17,104	74	4,661	6,526	265	5,458	120
Chemistry	4,204	21	2,111	1,041	22	976	33
Earth sciences	517	5	206	202	----------	99	5
Meteorology	86	6	37	28	----------	11	4
Physics	856	2	299	334	1	212	8
Mathematics	1,747	16	492	954	----------	266	19
Agricultural sciences	51	3	28	12	----------	7	1
Biological sciences	3,107	4	650	971	232	1,235	15
Psychology	3,747	----------	94	1,803	4	1,836	10
Statistics	289	9	93	126	----------	55	6
Economics	493	4	61	228	----------	195	5
Sociology	407	1	14	116	3	272	1
Linguistics	261	----------	33	115	1	104	8
Other fields	1,339	3	543	596	2	190	5

Source: National Science Foundation: "National Register of Scientific and Technical Personnel." 1964.

The median annual salary of all scientists (both sexes) on the 1964 register was $11,000 (table 79). Bachelor's and master's degree holders reported a median of $10,000, while holders of doctorates reported a median salary of $12,000. The median annual salary of women scientists was $8,400.

Among women scientists, the highest median salaries were received by economists and statisticians ($10,000 each), followed by psychologists and sociologists ($9,000 each), physicists ($8,600), mathematicians ($8,500), and biological scientists ($8,400). These medians were from $1,100 to $3,400 a year less than the median salaries of all scientists in the respective fields.

Table 79.—Median Annual Salaries of Full-Time Employed Women Civilian Scientists, by Field, 1964

Scientific and technical field	*Women*		*Median annual salary of all scientists (both sexes)*
	Number	*Median annual salary*	
All fields	17,104	$8,400	$11,000
Chemistry	4,204	7,700	11,000
Earth sciences	517	8,200	10,300
Meteorology	86	8,200	10,600
Physics	856	8,600	12,000
Mathematics	1,747	8,500	11,000
Agricultural sciences	51	7,200	9,200
Biological sciences	3,107	8,400	10,700
Psychology	3,747	9,000	10,300
Statistics	289	10,000	12,000
Economics	493	10,000	12,000
Sociology	407	9,000	10,100
Linguistics	261	7,500	9,000
Other fields	1,339	7,500	11,100

Source: National Science Foundation: "National Register of Scientific and Technical Personnel." 1964.

Salaries of Federal Employees

The latest salary information for women employees of the Federal Government was obtained by the Civil Service Commission as of October 1962. The survey showed that 517,769 women white-collar workers had an average (mean) annual salary of $5,215 in 1962, as

compared with $7,198 for men. Women were 32 percent of all full-time white-collar workers. Salaries ranged from $3,245 for grade 1 jobs to $20,000 for grade 18 jobs—as determined under the Classification Act of 1949, as amended. Effective October 1965 salaries were increased so that they ranged from $3,507 for grade 1 to $25,382 for grade 18.

Differences between the grades and salaries of women and men arise not only from differences in types of jobs held, but also from differences in length of service. For example, a special study by the Civil Service Commission of Federal employment records revealed that in 1963 the average length of service was 11.2 years for women but 15.1 years for men.[16] About 26 percent of the women, but only 10 percent of the men, had less than 5 years of service. About 53 percent of the women and 72 percent of the men had at least 10 years of service.

The largest group of women (275,000) in October 1962 were employed in general administrative, clerical, and office services (table 80). Their average (mean) annual salary was $4,828. The second largest group for women was accounting and budget, where 48,722 were employed at an average salary of $5,384. The highest average salaries paid to women employed in the Federal service were in veterinary medical science ($9,357) and copyright, patent, and trademark ($9,252), but there were very few of these women and they represented a very small proportion of total employment in these occupations.

Salaries of College Graduates

77. *Starting Salaries of Recent College Graduates*

The jobs and salaries expected to be offered to June 1965 college graduates were reported by 200 companies in a survey conducted in November 1964 by the Northwestern University Placement Center.[17] Almost all the companies that responded to the university's inquiry made regular visits to selected campuses and actively sought college and university graduates. All but a few were large- or medium-sized corporations. They were located in 25 States and represented all major regions of the country.

Most college women who graduated in 1964 were employed through direct application to the employer. Ninety-two of the companies reporting in November 1964 indicated that they had hired a total of

[16] "Federal Employees Covered by Retirement System, by Sex, Age, and Length of Service, June 30, 1963." U.S. Civil Service Commission.

[17] Since the survey for 1965 was conducted in November 1964, many campuses had not yet been visited by recruiters and contractual negotiations had not yet been concluded.

Table 80.—Average Annual Salaries of Women Full-Time White-Collar Workers in the Federal Service, All Areas,[1] by Occupational Group, October 31, 1962

Occupational group	*Number*	*Average annual salary*[2]	*As percent of total employed*
Total	517, 769	$5, 215	31. 7
General administrative, clerical, and office services	275, 699	4, 828	73. 4
Accounting and budget	48, 722	5, 384	46. 0
Medical, hospital, dental, and public health	40, 526	5, 867	45. 2
Postal	40, 305	5, 301	8. 5
Supply	36, 040	5, 149	48. 1
Personnel administration and industrial relations	15, 118	5, 904	51. 6
Legal and kindred	13, 352	6, 099	35. 1
Mathematics and statistics	8, 458	5, 620	57. 8
Education	8, 317	5, 360	39. 7
Transportation	4, 919	5, 484	17. 1
Business and industry	4, 527	6, 944	10. 3
Social science, psychology, and welfare	4, 198	8, 331	22. 0
Library and archives	3, 927	6, 467	64. 7
Physical sciences	3, 174	6, 885	9. 2
Fine and applied arts	2, 304	6, 975	22. 5
Engineering	1, 664	6, 347	1. 4
Biological sciences	1, 630	6, 828	4. 4
Investigation	420	6, 858	1. 3
Commodity quality control, inspection, and grading	169	6, 114	1. 2
Mechanic	105	7, 168	. 6
Copyright, patent, and trademark	65	9, 252	3. 9
Veterinary medical science	31	9, 357	1. 4
Miscellaneous	4, 099	6, 073	8. 9

[1] Worldwide.
[2] Arithmetic mean.

Source: U.S. Civil Service Commission: Federal Employment Statistics Bulletin, May 1964.

896 women from the classes of 1964. Of these companies, 80 indicated that they would hire more college women if qualified graduates were available, especially in such fields as mathematics-data processing, engineering, accounting, chemistry, and other sciences.

Starting salaries of women graduates in 1964, as reported by the 92 companies, averaged about $425 a month. Women graduates employed in scientific and engineering fields, however, generally received $525 a month or more. For example, the monthly salaries of

12 women engineers averaged $602; of 3 physicists, $543; of 38 chemists, $539; and of 116 mathematicians and statisticians, $509. The salaries of women in other fields ranged from $365 for airline hostesses to $472 for accountants (table 81).

Table 81.—Starting Salaries of Women With Bachelor's Degrees Employed in 1964, as Reported by 92 Companies

Occupational field	Number		Starting monthly salary
	Companies	Graduates	
Total	[1]92	896	
Mathematics-statistics	34	116	$509
General liberal arts	16	232	385
Chemistry	15	38	539
Home economics	14	48	426
General business	9	59	404
Engineering	8	12	602
Accounting	8	23	472
Economics-finance	7	10	454
English-editorial	5	13	435
Secretary	5	48	380
Biological science	3	11	505
Physics	2	3	543
Market research	2	62	385
Airline hostess	1	123	365
Other fields	16	98	436

[1] Details do not add to total because multiple replies were tabulated individually.

Source: Northwestern University: Frank S. Endicott, "Trends in Employment of College and University Students." March 1965.

A nationwide survey of employment opportunities for June 1965 college graduates was conducted by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in early 1965.[18] This study indicated that the employment outlook for recent college graduates was generally excellent and that starting salaries offered 1965 graduates earlier in the year by recruiting companies were at a record high level. Entry salaries alone were not, however, the prime consideration of these recent college graduates. They were able to choose jobs with greater freedom—able to analyze opportunities for service and advancement, relate jobs offered to their specialization or major, and select their geographical location. In addition to the higher salaries generally offered graduates, fringe benefits, such as insurance and investment programs and vacation and retire-

[18] "The Job Outlook for 1965 College Graduates." Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor. May 10, 1965.

ment plans, were available but not usually included in the base salaries reported. Since there is a small though growing percentage of students, both women and men, who choose graduate school rather than employment, companies in some cases were also including free advanced college education as an added inducement.

Although there is a growing acceptance of professional women in industry, the Bureau of Labor Statistics survey indicated that women graduates not entering teaching still found employment primarily in social work, retailing, government, and nonprofit organizations. As among men graduates, women with technical training were in greatest demand, and women in almost all technical fields found no difficulty in locating jobs, especially if they had advanced degrees. Women with general liberal arts majors had the most difficulty in finding professional employment. Graduates with secretarial or clerical skills, on the other hand, found numerous employment opportunities available.

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics survey, women and men college graduates with a bachelor's degree in science and engineering who were being recruited for employment in these fields were generally offered the highest salaries—$575 to $650 a month. Salaries offered new graduates with a major in mathematics ranged from $500 to $625 a month; those with a major in the physical sciences, from $550 to $625 a month. New graduates who majored in economics were offered salaries averaging about $525 a month. Graduates with a major in journalism, as well as liberal arts graduates with writing ability, were being offered approximately $400 a month. Salary offers ranged from $425 to $600 a month for many business administration and liberal arts graduates for employment in personnel, advertising, and public relations work, as sales representatives, and as business trainees.

Starting salaries for beginning elementary and secondary school teachers (the principal professional occupation of women) generally ranged from $3,300 to $5,500 a year, depending upon geographical location. Secondary school teachers tended to receive offers in the higher end of the range. Salaries of beginning college teachers were generally between $6,500 and $7,500 for 9 months of full-time employment.

In the Federal service entry salaries for a wide range of occupations were the same for all qualified college graduates in 1965. The entry salary as of October 1965 in most cases was $5,181 a year for graduates in liberal arts, business administration, public administration, biological science, and social science. Outstanding graduates in these fields could begin at $6,269. The entry annual salary was $6,207 for holders of bachelor's degrees in scientific and technical fields. Those

with superior scholastic records or with at least 1 year of graduate work in these fields could begin at $7,304. Graduates who qualified through the Federal Service Entrance Examination for management intern positions received a starting salary of $6,269 or $7,479 a year, depending upon qualifications.

College graduates who entered the Peace Corps did not receive regular salaries. They received a monthly living allowance, a clothing allowance, and all travel and training expenses. At the end of their service, they received a readjustment allowance of $75 for each month of completed service—$1,800 in all (less income tax and social security). Many colleges offered returning Peace Corps graduates advanced degree credit for their oversea training.

Many of the placement officers who participated in the Bureau of Labor Statistics survey indicated that recruiters from large companies and those from firms engaged in specialized fields were selective in their recruitment of women graduates. On the whole, salaries quoted by recruiters were aimed at "above-average" women graduates—those in the top 10 to 15 percent of their graduating class. Higher starting salaries generally were offered women who had either a master's or a doctor's degree.

78. Salaries of College Graduates: 5 Years Later [19]

In 1963 the Bureau of Social Science Research, Inc., conducted for the National Science Foundation a followup survey of women who had received either a bachelor's or a master's degree in 1958. Women who earned a first professional degree in library science or social work were also included. The original study was conducted to learn about the occupational status of recent young college graduates who majored in various fields. The followup study was designed to update information collected in 1960 [20] on further education, employment, military status, and marital status of a sample group of the earlier respondents.

Bachelor's degrees.—Of the 119,541 women who had earned a bachelor's degree in 1958, a total of 9,290, or about 8 percent, participated in the followup survey [21] (table 82). A majority (57 percent) of these women were in the labor force in the summer of 1963, with about 47 percent employed full time, 10 percent employed part time, and less than 1 percent unemployed. Almost 7 percent of the respondents reported they were attending school—1.3 percent full time and 5.5

[19] Based on preliminary data.
[20] "Two Years After the College Degree." NSF 63-26. Prepared by the Bureau of Social Science Research, Inc., for the National Science Foundation. 1963.
[21] The survey excludes all first professional degrees.

percent part time. Although 61 percent reported that they were housewives, information regarding the proportion of married women who were also employed or attending school is not available.[22]

Table 82.—Employment Status in 1963 of Women Who Earned a Bachelor's or Master's Degree in 1958

Employment status	Bachelor's degree		Master's degree	
	Number	Percent distribution	Number	Percent distribution
Total [1]	9,290	100.0	1,736	100.0
In the labor force	5,321	57.3	1,395	80.4
Civilian labor force:				
Employed	5,229	56.3	1,384	79.7
Full time	4,335	46.7	1,229	70.8
Part time	894	9.6	155	8.9
Unemployed	68	.7	8	.5
Armed Forces	24	.3	3	.2
In school	629	6.8	140	8.1
Full time	120	1.3	39	2.2
Part time	509	5.5	101	5.8
Housewives	5,646	60.8	632	36.4
Retired	29	.3	4	.2
Not reported	57	.6	6	.3

[1] Details do not add to totals because multiple replies were tabulated individually. Some of the women were in school, some were employed, some were seeking work, and some reported a combination of two or more.

Source: Bureau of Social Science Research, Inc., Washington, D.C.

Most of the women respondents who worked full time in the summer of 1963 were employed in professional fields (table 83). About 67 percent either were teachers or were in other school occupations such as guidance counselor and school official or administrator. Thirty-nine percent were elementary school teachers, 23 percent were high school teachers, and 3 percent were college teachers. Other professional women were employed in a variety of occupations such as nurse, social worker, dietitian, performer or writer, natural or social scientist, and engineer. About 8 percent were employed in clerical, sales, semiskilled and technical, or service and unskilled occupations.

[22] Because of the method of coding, multiple answers were tabulated individually. As a result, if a woman reported that she was married, employed, and attending school, three separate entries were coded. It was not possible, therefore, to provide information regarding the number of women who were housewives only.

Table 83.—Median Annual Salaries of Women Who Earned a Bachelor's or Master's Degree in 1958, by Full-Time Occupation in Summer 1963

Occupation	Number [1]	Percent distribution	Median annual salary
A. WOMEN WHO EARNED A BACHELOR'S DEGREE IN 1958			
Total	4,335	100.0	$5,656
Business and commercial occupations	156	3.6	5,489
Clerical and sales occupations	184	4.2	4,660
Dietitians	62	1.4	5,432
Health occupations	267	6.2	5,440
Natural scientists	54	1.2	7,143
Semiskilled, technical occupations	122	2.8	5,479
Service, unskilled occupations	47	1.1	5,250
Social workers	162	3.7	5,821
Teachers (elementary school)	1,669	38.5	5,777
Teachers (secondary school)	991	22.9	5,583
Teachers (college)	142	3.3	6,132
Writers and performing artists	228	5.3	5,585
Other	251	5.8	---
B. WOMEN WHO EARNED A MASTER'S DEGREE IN 1958			
Total	1,229	100.0	6,998
Health occupations	74	6.0	6,813
Social workers	76	6.2	7,000
Teachers (elementary school)	284	23.1	7,093
Teachers (secondary school)	296	24.1	6,670
Teachers (college)	119	9.7	6,729
Writers and performing artists	85	6.9	6,600
Other	295	24.0	---

[1] Includes all women graduates in the survey employed full time.

Source: Bureau of Social Science Research, Inc., Washington, D.C.

The median annual salaries of the women employed full time 5 years after college graduation were in the $5,000 to $6,000 range in most occupations. Medians in excess of this range were found among women in certain fields: engineering ($9,250), chemistry ($7,600), mathematics ($7,500), biological science ($6,395), and college teaching ($6,132). The lowest median annual salaries were found among performing artists ($4,594) and clerks and secretaries ($4,660).

Master's degrees.—Of the 23,652 women who had received a master's degree in 1958, 1,736 (slightly over 7 percent) participated in the survey in the summer of 1963 [23] (table 82). Eighty percent of these women were in the labor force, 8 percent were attending school (2 percent full time and 6 percent part time), and 36 percent reported they were housewives.[24]

Most of the women respondents employed full time in the summer of 1963 were in professional occupations (table 83). The largest group (67 percent) of the women were employed as teachers or were in other school occupations. In contrast to the bachelor's degree holders, only 23 percent of the master's degree holders were elementary school teachers, while 24 percent were high school teachers and almost 10 percent worked in colleges. The remaining professional women worked in many fields—as performers and writers, social workers, nurses, psychologists, and engineers. Less than 2 percent of the employed women had clerical or service jobs.

The median annual salary of the women employed full time who had earned a master's degree in 1958 was $6,998, 5 years later. Above-average salaries were reported by women employed as engineers, mathematicians, dietitians, and psychologists. Women in business and commerce also reported above-average salaries. Among the lowest paid were women employed as clerical or secretarial workers ($4,583) and as writers ($5,917).

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[23] Figures for women who received first professional degrees in library science and social work are included with master's degrees. Women with other first professional degrees were not included in this survey. In 1958 the number of women respondents who earned professional degrees was very small. They included only 7 percent of the M.D.'s and 3 percent of the law graduates.

[24] See footnote 22, p. 168.

4

EDUCATION, TRAINING, AND EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN

One of the most important determinants in a woman's employment is the amount and type of education or training she has received. It affects the likelihood of her employment, the regularity of her employment, and the type of job she holds. Any discussion of women workers, therefore, would be incomplete without some recognition of the vocational benefits that accompany the social and cultural values of education. Moreover, the amount of trained womanpower available in this era of technological change is of particular significance to the growth of our economy.

Education of Women in the Population and Labor Force [1]

In March 1964 women 18 years of age and over in the labor force had somewhat more schooling on the average than did all women of this age group in the population—12.3 years for workers and 12.1 years for the population (table 84). Ten percent of the women in the labor force had completed 4 years or more of college compared with only 7 percent of the woman population. Similarly 41 percent of the women in the work force had completed their education with high school graduation compared with 36 percent of the women in the population. At the lower end of the educational scale, only 20 percent of the women workers had an eighth grade education or less compared with 28 percent of the women in the population. And women with less than 5 years of schooling were twice as prevalent in the population as in the labor force. Among men there is less difference between the educational attainment of those in the labor force and those in the population, since a much larger proportion of men than of women are employed or seeking work.

[1] See also "Trends in Educational Attainment of Women," Women's Bureau, U.S. Department of Labor, January 1965.

Table 84.—Educational Attainment of the Population and of Workers, by Sex, March 1964

(Persons 18 years of age and over)

Years of school completed	Population		Labor force	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
Number (in thousands)	61, 883	55, 118	24, 326	45, 600
Percent	100. 0	100. 0	100. 0	100. 0
Elementary:				
Less than 5 years [1]	5. 2	6. 8	2. 5	4. 4
5 to 7 years	9. 4	10. 4	6. 9	9. 0
8 years	13. 8	14. 6	10. 9	13. 6
High school:				
1 to 3 years	19. 2	18. 4	18. 8	19. 4
4 years	36. 0	28. 1	40. 9	31. 1
College:				
1 to 3 years	9. 8	10. 8	10. 6	10. 6
4 years or more	6. 5	10. 8	9. 5	12. 1
Median years of school completed	12. 1	12. 0	12. 3	12. 1

[1] Includes persons reporting no school years completed.

Source: U.S Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 53.

Nearly 15 million, or 61 percent of the more than 24 million women in the labor force in March 1964, had at least a high school education (chart R). Of these, 2.3 million were college graduates and about 2.6 million had 1 to 3 years of college. Almost 2.3 million women workers had not finished elementary school. Of these, about 500,000 had 1 to 4 years of schooling and nearly 100,000 had not attended school at all.

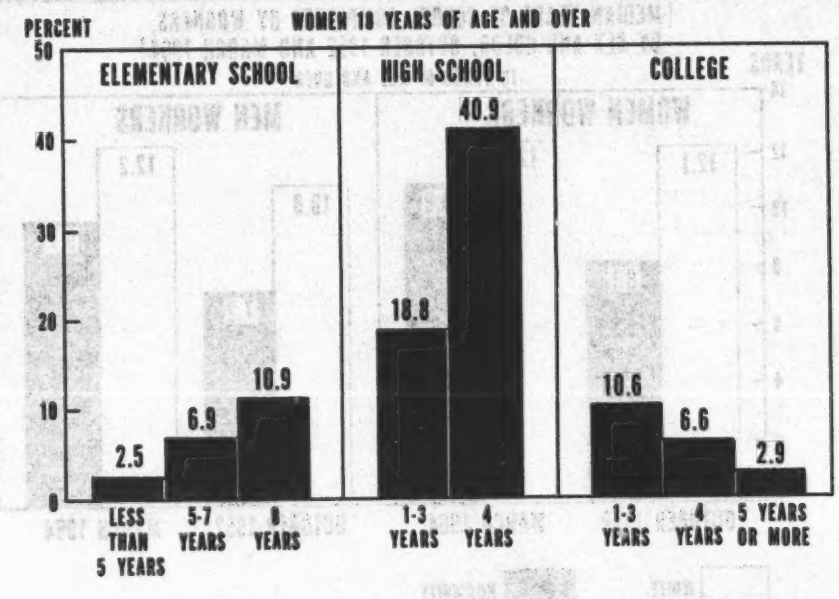
In March 1964 nonwhite women workers had completed an average (median) of 10.8 years of schooling compared with 12.3 school years for white women workers. The difference in the amount of education completed by white and nonwhite women not in the labor force was greater—11.8 years and 9.2 years, respectively. However, nonwhite women workers had at least a year more of formal education than their male counterparts had.

79. Rise in Educational Attainment

Educational attainment of the population as a whole and of those working or seeking work has increased considerably over the past few years. According to studies made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the median years of school completed by all women 18 years of age

MOST WOMEN WORKERS ARE AT LEAST HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES

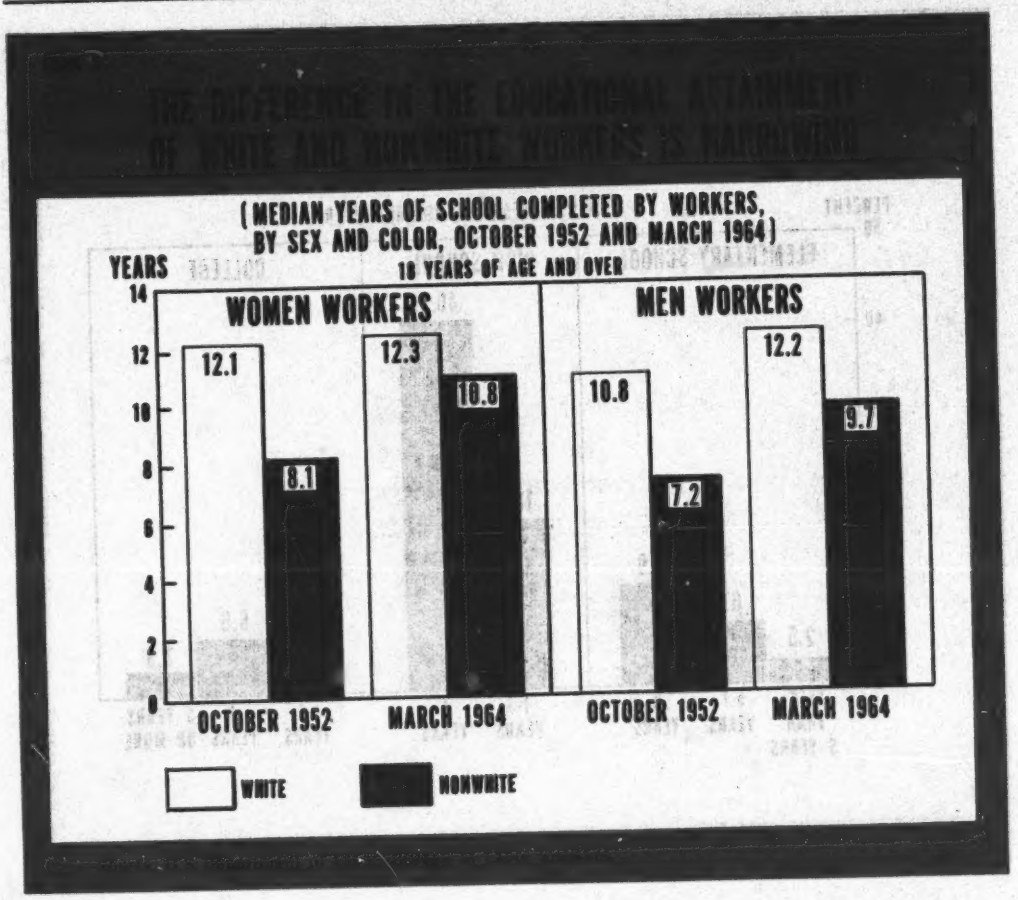
(EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT OF WOMEN WORKERS, MARCH 1964)



Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

and over rose 1.1 years between October 1952 and March 1964; by women workers, 0.3 years. Men made even better progress over the 12-year period. The median years of school completed by all men 18 years of age and over in the population increased 1.9 years; by those in the labor force, 1.7 years. The greatest advance, however, was made by nonwhite workers. The median years of school completed by nonwhite women workers rose 2.7 years compared with only 0.2 years for white women workers (chart S). The contrast in the rise in years of schooling completed by white and nonwhite men workers was not as sharp—2.5 years for nonwhite and 1.4 years for white.

This rise in educational attainment of the population and the work force was influenced by both social and economic factors. Special impetus was furnished by the increasing demand for workers in occupations that require a higher level of skill and training. Education above the elementary level, at one time beyond the reach of many, is now generally available to all. Most young people finish high school, and more and more people of all ages are attending college and



taking postgraduate work. It is therefore significant to consider the number of persons enrolling in and graduating from school and the fields of study in which students of institutions of higher education are taking their degrees.

School Enrollments

There were 24.8 million girls and women between 5 and 34 years of age enrolled in school in the fall of 1964, according to the Bureau of the Census (table 85). This was 10.4 million more than in the fall of 1950. Even more significant is the rise—from 41 percent in 1950 to 55 percent in 1964—in the proportion of the female population 5 to 34 years of age who were attending school.

This increase, however, was not spread evenly among the various age groups. Nearly all girls of grade school age—6 to 13 years—were enrolled in school in both years. In contrast, a considerably higher proportion of 5-year-old girls and of women 14 to 34 years of age were enrolled in school in 1964 than in 1950. Among girls 14 to 17 years of age—the usual high school age group—the proportion attend-

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Table 85.—School Enrollment of the Population 5 to 34 Years of Age, by Sex, October 1950 and October 1964 [1]

Age	Number of students enrolled in 1964		Female students as percent of population		Male students as percent of population	
	Girls and women	Boys and men	1964	1950	1964	1950
Total	24,809,000	26,851,000	55.3	41.0	62.3	47.5
5 years	1,379,000	1,435,000	68.1	51.9	68.8	51.6
6 years	1,985,000	2,043,000	98.4	97.9	98.1	96.1
7 to 13 years	13,177,000	13,548,000	99.2	98.7	98.8	98.7
14 to 17 years	6,356,000	6,658,000	91.8	82.2	94.4	84.3
18 and 19 years	958,000	1,238,000	33.7	24.3	50.9	35.2
20 to 24 years	716,000	1,332,000	10.9	4.6	23.8	14.2
25 to 29 years	148,000	411,000	2.6	.4	8.1	5.9
30 to 34 years	90,000	186,000	1.9	.4	3.6	1.5

[1] Includes schools in regular school system; that is, public, parochial, and private schools offering a diploma or a degree.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P-20, No. 148.

ing school rose from 82 to 92 percent. The proportion of women 20 to 24 years of age enrolled in school more than doubled, and the proportion of those 25 to 34 years of age increased more than five times.

Relatively fewer females 5 to 34 years of age than males of this age group were attending school in both 1950 and 1964. There was little difference in the proportions of the population enrolled in school at ages 5 through 17. But there was a wide disparity among those 18 years of age and over. In 1964 among 18- and 19-year-olds, over half the boys were enrolled in school as compared with only one-third of the girls. Similarly, among those 20 to 24 years old, one-fourth of the men were attending school as compared with one-tenth of the women. And the differences were proportionately greater among those 25 to 34 years of age.

There was also a divergence in the proportions of white and nonwhite girls attending school. In 1964 nearly all girls less than 14 years of age, both white and nonwhite, were enrolled in school. Beginning with age 16, relatively more white girls than nonwhite girls attended school, except among 18- and 19-year-olds. But the differences were not as wide as they had been in 1950, when only 72 percent of nonwhite girls 14 to 17 years of age were enrolled in school as compared with 84 percent of white girls. In 1964 the respective percentages were 89 and 92. Thus the gap in the relative number of nonwhite and white girls enrolled in school has narrowed.

80. *Types of Schools*

Of the 24.8 million girls and women enrolled in the fall of 1964, 16.7 million (67 percent) were in kindergarten or elementary school, 6.4 million (26 percent) were in high school, and the remaining 1.8 million (7 percent) were attending colleges, universities, or professional schools (table 86). These students were enrolled in schools in the regular school system; that is, any type of graded public, private, or parochial school in the regular school system offering courses leading to an elementary or high school diploma, or to a college, university, or professional degree. Students enrolled in vocational courses taken for credit at any of these schools also are included.

An additional 637,000 girls and women 5 to 34 years of age were enrolled in special schools outside the regular school system. Most of these schools offer occupationally oriented courses not leading to a diploma or a degree. Among others, they include vocational schools, business colleges, schools of nursing, schools of beauty culture, and technical schools. Of the girls and women enrolled in these schools, 543,000, or 85 percent, were 18 years of age or over.

Table 86.—Types of School Attended by Students 5 to 34 Years of Age, by Sex, October 1964 [1]

Type of school	Female students		Male students	
	Number	Percent distribution	Number	Percent distribution
Total	24,809,000	100.0	26,851,000	100.0
Elementary school or kindergarten	16,698,000	67.3	17,505,000	65.2
High school	6,353,000	25.6	6,459,000	24.1
College	1,755,000	7.1	2,887,000	10.8

[1] Includes schools in regular school system; that is, public, parochial, and private schools offering a diploma or a degree.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P-20, No. 148.

Growth in Secondary Education

The number of young people enrolling in and graduating from high school is rising steadily. While part of this is due to the increase in the number of young people in the population, part is also due to certain social and economic factors. Most States have passed compulsory school attendance laws establishing a minimum school-leaving age—usually 16. The passage of child labor laws at both the State and Federal levels has raised the minimum age at which young people can be employed, thus influencing them to stay in school. Moreover, more young people are able to stay in school because of the rise in personal and family income. And young people are increasingly aware of the necessity of securing at least a high school diploma in order to qualify for most jobs. Many of the jobs requiring little or no training that formerly offered beginning employment for young men and women have disappeared.

As recently as June 1950 only 77 out of 100 persons 14 to 17 years of age were enrolled in high school.[2] In the school year ending in June 1964, this ratio had grown to 94 out of 100. A similar growth occurred among high school graduates. In 1950, 59 out of 100 persons 17 years of age graduated from high school. By 1963 this ratio had increased to 70 out of 100.

[2] "Digest of Educational Statistics." Bull. 18. Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. 1964.

There were 1,173,000 girls and 1,129,000 boys who graduated from high school during the school year 1963–64. This was 350,000 more than the number who graduated in 1963 (1,952,000) and was due mainly to the tremendous rise in the number of young people of high school graduating age in the population. Girls have consistently outnumbered boys among high school graduates. However, the difference has narrowed, and currently the number of boys almost equals the number of girls graduating from high school.

81. High School Retention Rates

The increased holding power of the schools has been measured by the Office of Education on the basis of retention rates. Of those youngsters who entered the fifth grade in the fall of 1942, 81 percent enrolled in high school in 1947 and 51 percent graduated in 1950. The picture was considerably brighter in 1964. Of those boys and girls who entered the fifth grade in 1956, 93 percent enrolled in high school in 1960 and 67 percent graduated in 1964. Moreover, 36 percent of the 1964 graduates enrolled in college compared with 21 percent of those who graduated in 1950.

82. School Dropouts

Despite this substantial progress, large numbers of both girls and boys still leave school before earning a high school diploma. According to a survey made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1.7 million of the 4 million girls 16 to 21 years of age who were not in school in February 1963 had dropped out before completing high school (table 87). About 347,000 had never attended high school, and nearly half of these had completed less than 8 years of schooling. Dropping out of school was much more prevalent among nonwhite girls than among white girls—55 percent of the nonwhite girls 16 to 21 years of age had not graduated from high school compared with 39 percent of the white girls.

The report of the survey shows reasons given by young people for dropping out of school or leaving college. Among girls who had dropped out of elementary or high school, the principal reason given was marriage or pregnancy. A larger proportion of nonwhite girls (49 percent) than of white girls (38 percent) gave this as their primary reason. Second in importance among both white and nonwhite girls was loss of interest in school, but a larger percentage of white girls than of nonwhite girls gave this reason. Relatively few white girls left school because of poor grades or difficulties with school au-

thorities. Among nonwhite girls, however, while only 4 percent left because of poor grades, 6 percent dropped out of school because of trouble with school authorities. In contrast, half of the boys who dropped out of elementary or high school gave economic reasons or lack of interest as their reason for withdrawing from school.

Of the 421,000 girls 16 to 21 years of age who had left college, 23 percent gave marriage or pregnancy as their main reason and 13 percent gave economic factors. On the other hand, among the 296,000 boys, 35 percent indicated economic reasons and 15 percent claimed lack of interest in school.

Table 87.—Main Reasons for Dropping Out of School or Leaving College, by Level of School, Sex, and Color, February 1963

(Persons 16 to 21 years of age)

Main reason for leaving school	Level of school last attended					
	Elementary or high school				College	
	Girls					
	Total	White	Nonwhite	Boys	Women	Men
Number (in thousands)	1,675	1,345	330	1,371	421	296
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Marriage or pregnancy	40.0	37.8	48.8	2.8	23.0	6.9
Not interested in school	18.9	20.3	13.0	24.4	4.2	15.2
Economic reasons [1]	12.1	12.4	10.9	26.2	13.0	35.1
Own illness	6.6	6.9	5.8	4.0	8.2	2.5
Wanted to go to work	4.3	4.8	2.1	12.1	5.8	8.0
Poor grades	4.3	4.4	3.6	13.2	7.9	12.3
Difficulties with school authorities	2.4	1.5	5.8	7.4	.8	-----
Other reasons	11.5	11.9	10.0	9.9	37.0	19.9

[1] Includes unemployment in family, to support family, could not afford to go to school, needed money and similar reasons.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 46.

Women and Higher Education

Each year more and more women enroll in and graduate from institutions of higher education. The advantages, both cultural and vocational, of education beyond the high school level have had a marked influence on the decisions of many of our young women as to what

to do when they finish high school. However, women still lag behind men in pursuing their education beyond the secondary school level, especially in the area of advanced degrees.

83. High School Graduates Entering College

An estimated 1,178,000 girls graduated from high school in 1964. Although information as to exactly how many of these students went on to college is not available, a correlation between the number of persons who graduate from high school in the spring of one year and the number of first-time college enrollments the following fall provides some indication as to the proportion of students going on to college. It must be remembered, however, that some students do not enter college immediately after graduation but may enroll in college several years later.

With this limitation in mind, it is interesting to note that the number of women enrolling in college for the first time relative to the number of women high school graduates has increased steadily since 1950 (table 88). Thus in 1950 the number of women first-time enrollees in college was 31 percent of the number of women high school graduates. This proportion increased to 40 percent by 1958 and to 45 percent by 1964.

A similar correlation for men is not as indicative of the true picture, since the number of men enrolling in college for the first time was influenced by the enrollment of veterans of World War II and the Korean conflict. However, it is evident that more men than women enrolled in college throughout the period 1950 to 1964. Moreover, a comparison of the number of men first-time enrollees with the number of men high school graduates indicates that a much higher proportion of men than of women went on to college throughout the 15-year period.

84. College Enrollments

There were 2,052,106 women enrolled in institutions of higher education in the fall of 1964 according to the Office of Education (table 89). Of these, 116,000 were students in occupational or general studies programs not chiefly creditable toward a bachelor's degree. Figures on students in this type of program were not collected prior to the fall of 1963, but in just 1 year the number of women enrolled in these schools increased by 30 percent.

The remaining 1,936,106 women were taking work creditable toward a bachelor's or higher degree. This was more than twice the 727,270

Table 88.—High School Graduates and First-Time College Enrollments, by Sex, Selected Years, 1950–64

(Persons of all ages)

Selected year	Women			Men		
	High school graduates	First-time college enrollments		High school graduates	First-time college enrollments	
		Number	Percent of high school graduates		Number	Percent of high school graduates
1964 [1]	1,178,000	528,340	44.9	1,137,000	706,466	62.1
1963	996,000	446,584	44.8	956,000	608,562	63.7
1962	990,000	436,627	44.1	940,000	601,993	64.0
1960	966,000	387,049	40.1	898,000	542,774	60.4
1958	780,400	312,450	40.0	725,500	468,625	64.6
1956	735,300	277,064	37.7	679,500	446,114	65.7
1954	663,600	244,573	36.9	612,500	386,549	63.1
1952	627,300	213,206	34.0	569,200	323,673	56.9
1950	629,000	197,103	31.3	570,700	319,733	56.0

[1] Estimated.

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education: "Digest of Educational Statistics, 1964," Bull. 1964, No. 18, and "Opening (Fall) Enrollment in Higher Education, 1964," Circular No. 762.

enrolled in 1950. Over the same period, the number of women 18 to 21 years of age in the population had increased by only 25 percent. Women's representation among all students in colleges and universities offering degree-credit programs had increased from 32 percent in 1950 to 39 percent in 1964—still slightly below their peak of 40 percent reached in 1939.

Table 89.—Enrollments, by Type of Institution, Fall 1964

Type of institution	Total	Women		
		Number	Percent distribution	As percent of total
All institutions	5,320,294	2,052,106	100.0	38.6
4-year institutions	4,328,861	1,680,427	81.9	38.8
Degree-credit enrollments	4,274,591	1,663,400	81.1	38.9
Universities	2,110,783	713,744	34.8	33.8
Liberal arts colleges	1,396,165	640,003	31.2	45.8
Independent schools:				
Teachers colleges	497,771	260,213	12.7	52.3
Technological	122,813	11,389	.6	9.3
Theological, religious	48,150	11,498	.6	23.9
Schools of art	19,925	10,427	.5	52.3
Other professional	78,984	16,126	.8	20.4
Nondegree-credit enrollments	54,270	17,027	.8	31.4
2-year institutions	991,433	371,679	18.1	37.5
Degree-credit enrollments	713,276	272,706	13.3	38.2
Nondegree-credit enrollments	278,157	98,973	4.8	35.6

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education: "Opening (Fall) Enrollment in Higher Education, 1964." Circular No. 762.

Types of institutions attended by women.—Of the 2,052,106 women enrolled in the fall of 1964, 1,680,427 were in 4-year institutions and 371,679 were in 2-year institutions, usually junior colleges. Only a small proportion (1 percent) of those attending 4-year institutions were following a program which did not lead to a degree. In contrast, more than one-fourth (27 percent) of the enrollees in 2-year institutions were taking a program that would not earn them a degree.

A slightly higher proportion of all women enrollees were attending 4-year universities (35 percent) than 4-year liberal arts colleges (31 percent). Thirteen percent were in teachers colleges. Less than 1 percent were in each of the following types of 4-year institutions: technological, theological, art, and other professional schools.

About 18 percent of all women enrollees were in 2-year institutions or junior colleges. Comparable figures for 1963 reported by the Office of Education show that in 1 year the number of women enrolling in junior colleges increased by 19 percent. More and more community colleges have been established or are in the planning stage to supplement opportunities for higher education offered by established colleges and universities.

There was a considerable difference in the proportion that women were of all students in the various types of 4-year institutions. Thus, although women constituted only 39 percent of all enrolled students, they were 52 percent of those attending teachers colleges, 52 percent of those attending art schools, and 46 percent of those enrolled in liberal arts colleges. In contrast, women were only 9 percent of the students in technological schools.

About one-third of all women enrolled in institutions of higher education in the fall of 1964 were in privately controlled schools. The remainder attended publicly sponsored colleges and universities. Almost 38 percent of the women attending 4-year institutions were enrolled in private schools compared with only 14 percent of those in 2-year institutions.

Full-time and part-time students.—Among the 1,936,106 women taking work creditable toward a bachelor's or higher degree in the fall of 1964, 32 percent were attending school only part time. A slightly smaller proportion of the women attending private schools than of those attending public institutions were part-time students. There was considerable difference in part-time attendance between the 2- and 4-year institutions—about 46 percent of the women enrolled in 2-year institutions were attending part time compared with 30 percent of those in 4-year institutions.

College enrollments and marriage.—A significant and growing proportion of young women have combined marriage and college attendance, according to a survey made by the Bureau of the Census.[3] In October 1963, 255,000, or 16 percent, of the women college students under 35 years of age were married (husband present). This compares with a total of 147,000 married women students, or 13 percent, just 4 years previously. However, most of these married women students were 22 years of age and over—70 percent in 1963 and 79 percent in 1959.

Married women students are more likely to be enrolled in college on a part-time than a full-time basis. Thus 70 percent of all married

[3] Current Population Reports, P–20, No. 129. Bureau of the Census, U.S. Department of Commerce.

women students were attending school only part time in 1963. A larger proportion of married women 22 years of age and over (83 percent) than of those younger (38 percent) were enrolled as part-time students.

The percentage of men college students who are married is significantly higher than that of women. In October 1963, 26 percent of all men under 35 years of age enrolled in college were married (wife present). Married men students, like married women students, are likely to be relatively older and to attend school part time—85 percent of these men were 22 years of age and over and 58 percent were part-time students.

85. Women Earning Degrees

The number of women earning degrees has risen significantly in recent years and reached a record high of 235,936 in the school year 1963–64, according to the Office of Education. This was an increase of more than 30,000 over the number earned in 1962–63 and about 72,000 over the number conferred by institutions of higher education in 1959–60. Moreover, women earned nearly three times as many degrees in 1964 as they did in 1940.

Number and types of degrees.—Women's degrees in 1963–64 included 202,291 bachelor's and first professional [4] degrees (85.7 percent), 32,110 master's and other second level degrees (13.6 percent), and 1,535 doctor's degrees (0.7 percent). Of the 202,291 first level degrees, 4,945 (2.4 percent) were first professional degrees requiring 5 years or more of college. Despite the large increase since 1940 in the number of degrees earned by women, the percent earned at each level remained almost unchanged. Thus only about 1 percent of all degrees conferred on women were at the doctorate level in both 1940 and 1964, and the percent at the master's level increased only from 12 to 14 percent.

Comparison of degrees earned by women and men.—In 1964 women earned about 40 percent of all bachelor's and first professional degrees conferred. This was a slightly higher percentage than they earned in 1963 (39 percent). Back at the turn of the century, women earned only 19 percent of all bachelor's and first professional degrees. This proportion rose to 34 percent in 1920 and 40 percent in 1930, and reached a peak of 41 percent in 1940. Following World War II the percent dropped to a low of 24 in 1950, when the college graduating classes included large numbers of returning veterans. The propor-

[4] First professional degrees include degrees such as M.D., D.D.S., LL.B., B.D., M.L.S., and M.S.W

tions of all degrees conferred earned by women at the three degree levels in selected years were as follows:

Degrees conferred	Percent earned by women in—			
	1964	1960	1930	1900
Bachelor's or first professional	40.3	35.3	39.9	19.1
Master's	31.8	31.6	40.4	19.1
Doctor's	10.6	10.5	15.4	6.0

Although the number of women taking advanced degrees has increased, women earn only a small proportion of all advanced degrees conferred. Thus in 1964 women earned 32 percent of all master's or second level degrees. This was considerably below the peak of 40 percent registered in 1930. However, it is above the 19 percent they earned in 1900 and a more recent low of 29 percent they earned in 1950.

Women have made even less progress at the doctor's level. Despite a slow rise since the turn of the century in the number of women earning doctor's degrees, the proportion of these degrees earned by women has increased only slightly since 1950. In fact, the 11 percent of all doctor's degrees earned by women in 1964 is considerably below the 15 percent they earned in 1930.

Fields of study in which women earned degrees.—Since more and more women are enrolling in and graduating from institutions of higher education, it is of interest to examine the fields of study in which they earn degrees. It is likewise of interest to determine whether or not the relative importance of certain fields of study has changed since 1956 (the earliest date for which comparable figures are available).

Bachelor's and first professional degrees.—Women earned bachelor's or first professional degrees in 1964 in a broad and varied range of subjects—from 159 in engineering, 343 in law, and 432 in medicine to 27,285 in the social sciences and 86,050 in education (table 90). However, most of the degrees received by women were concentrated in a relatively limited number of fields of study. Forty-three percent of all bachelor's degrees conferred on women were in the field of education (chart T). This is not surprising since teaching is the largest single professional occupation for women. The humanities and the arts was the next most popular discipline (22 percent), followed by the social sciences (14 percent) and the basic and applied sciences (13 percent). The specific subjects in which the largest num-

ber of women earned degrees were elementary education (58,064), English and journalism (22,837), health professions (11,049), fine and applied arts (9,414), foreign languages and literature (8,676), history (8,422), sociology (6,587), biological sciences (6,454), and mathematical subjects (5,995).

Another indication of the popularity of certain fields of study among women is the proportion of all degrees in any one subject earned by women. In 1964 almost all first level degrees in home economics, home economics education, and early childhood education were conferred on women. Women also earned 9 out of 10 degrees in elementary education and speech correction; 3 out of 4 in library science;

Table 90.—Earned Bachelor's and First Professional Degrees Conferred on Women, by Selected Fields of Study, 1956 and 1964

Selected field of study	Number		Percent distribution		As percent of all bachelor's and first professional degrees conferred	
	1964	1956	1964	1956	1964	1956
Total	202,291	111,727	100.0	100.0	40.3	35.9
Education	86,050	50,733	42.5	45.4	76.2	71.8
Art education	2,137	849	1.1	.8	69.6	64.3
Business and commercial education	4,431	2,545	2.2	2.3	71.9	62.4
Early childhood education	3,486	2,463	1.7	2.2	99.7	98.6
Elementary education	58,064	31,849	28.7	28.5	89.8	88.7
Home economics education	4,343	3,080	2.1	2.8	100.0	99.9
Music education	2,973	2,210	1.5	2.0	56.7	56.3
Physical education	4,113	2,735	2.0	2.4	34.5	33.1
Secondary education	933	959	.5	.9	49.7	44.9
Speech correction	1,436	300	.7	.3	87.0	79.6
Other	4,134	3,743	2.0	3.4	39.3	41.5
Humanities and the arts	43,659	20,559	21.6	18.4	54.1	43.9
English and journalism	22,837	9,711	11.3	8.7	64.7	57.7
Fine and applied arts	9,414	6,170	4.7	5.5	58.2	55.0
Foreign languages, literature	8,676	2,467	4.3	2.2	70.2	62.0
Religion and philosophy	2,238	1,674	1.1	1.5	16.5	15.5
Other	494	537	.2	.5	14.8	13.7
Psychology	5,516	2,557	2.7	2.3	41.3	45.1

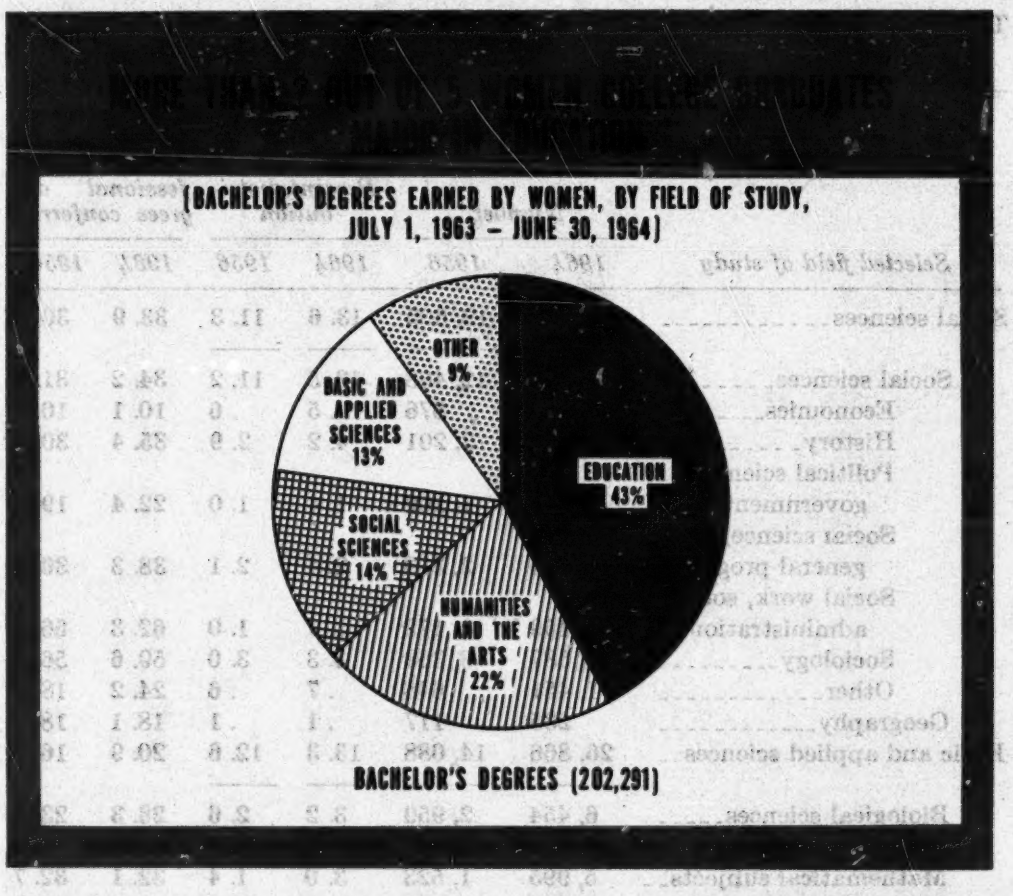
Table 90.—Earned Bachelor's and First Professional Degrees Conferred on Women, by Selected Fields of Study, 1956 and 1964—Continued

Selected field of study	Number		Percent distribution		As percent of all bachelor's and first professional degrees conferred	
	1964	1956	1964	1956	1964	1956
Social sciences	27,520	12,605	13.6	11.3	33.9	30.8
Social sciences	27,285	12,488	13.5	11.2	34.2	31.0
Economics	1,068	676	.5	.6	10.1	10.3
History	8,422	3,201	4.2	2.9	35.4	30.4
Political science, government	2,738	1,109	1.4	1.0	22.4	19.6
Social science, general program	4,860	2,319	2.4	2.1	38.3	36.5
Social work, social administration	2,159	1,172	1.1	1.0	62.3	66.2
Sociology	6,587	3,363	3.3	3.0	59.6	56.8
Other	1,451	648	.7	.6	24.2	18.6
Geography	235	117	.1	.1	18.1	18.0
Basic and applied sciences	26,866	14,088	13.3	12.6	20.9	16.6
Biological sciences	6,454	2,959	3.2	2.6	28.3	23.5
Health professions	11,049	7,606	5.5	6.8	43.5	34.0
Mathematical subjects	5,995	1,523	3.0	1.4	32.1	32.7
Physical sciences	2,450	1,501	1.2	1.3	14.0	12.9
Other	918	499	.5	.4	2.1	1.5
Other professional fields	12,680	11,185	6.3	10.0	14.8	17.9
Business and commerce	4,637	4,094	2.3	3.7	7.9	9.7
Home economics	4,805	4,673	2.4	4.2	97.9	99.3
Library science	1,966	1,233	1.0	1.1	77.6	77.4
Other	1,272	1,185	.6	1.1	6.6	8.5

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education: "Earned Degrees, 1955–56" and "Earned Degrees, 1963–64."

7 out of 10 in foreign languages and literature, art education, and business and commercial education; and about 2 out of 3 in English and journalism. On the other hand, women received only about 1 out of 10 first level degrees in economics and less than 1 out of 10 degrees in business and commerce.

Master's degrees.—Women who have majored in another field of study at the undergraduate level often obtain their master's degree in education in order to qualify for teaching positions in secondary schools or to qualify for higher rates of pay. Thus master's degrees


BACHELOR'S DEGREES EARNED BY WOMEN, BY FIELD OF STUDY,
JULY 1, 1963 – JUNE 30, 1964)
OTHER 9%
BASIC AND APPLIED SCIENCES 13%
EDUCATION 43%
SOCIAL SCIENCES 14%
HUMANITIES AND THE ARTS 22%
BACHELOR'S DEGREES (202,291)

earned by women in 1964 were considerably more concentrated in the field of education than were bachelor's degrees (59 percent and 43 percent, respectively) (table 91). The next largest proportion (18 percent) was in humanities and the arts, especially English and journalism. Neither the social sciences nor the basic and applied sciences were as popular at the second degree level as they were at the first degree level.

Even though women earned only 32 percent of all master's degrees conferred in 1964, they still predominated in the fields of home economics education, early childhood education, home economics, elementary education, and library science. Moreover, they earned more than half of the degrees in speech correction, business and commercial education, foreign languages and literature, art education, and English and journalism. On the other hand, women earned less than 1 out of 10 degrees in business and commerce, economics, and the physical sciences.

Doctor's degrees.—More women earned their doctor's degree in 1964 in the field of education than in any other, but the concentration (30 percent) was not as great as at the first and second degree levels

Table 91.—Earned Master's Degrees Conferred on Women, by Selected Fields of Study, 1956 and 1964

Selected field of study	Number		Percent distribution		As percent of all master's degrees conferred	
	1964	1956	1964	1956	1964	1956
Total	32,110	20,027	100.0	100.0	31.8	33.7
Education	18,841	14,133	58.7	70.6	46.3	46.9
Art education	230	132	.7	.7	53.4	45.5
Business and commercial education	485	280	1.5	1.4	58.9	54.5
Early childhood education	119	275	.4	1.4	98.3	92.6
Elementary education	5,306	4,244	16.5	21.2	78.8	76.0
Home economics education	403	364	1.3	1.8	99.8	98.4
Music education	415	340	1.3	1.7	34.2	34.2
Physical education	591	366	1.8	1.8	27.2	27.2
Secondary education	1,152	1,082	3.6	5.4	39.4	40.6
Speech correction	218	74	.7	.4	68.3	59.2
Other	9,922	6,976	38.8	34.8	38.8	38.9
Humanities and the arts	5,727	2,547	17.8	12.7	43.4	36.3
English and journalism	2,527	957	7.9	4.8	52.6	46.1
Fine and applied arts	1,556	900	4.8	4.5	42.4	38.1
Foreign languages, literature	1,247	417	3.9	2.1	53.8	46.4
Religion and philosophy	308	223	1.0	1.1	16.5	16.4
Other	89	50	.3	.2	16.8	15.6
Psychology	688	283	2.1	1.4	33.4	29.1
Social sciences	2,181	997	6.8	5.0	22.3	21.8
Social sciences	2,121	965	6.6	4.8	22.4	21.9
Economics	98	56	.3	.3	8.8	9.6
History	793	306	2.5	1.5	29.3	27.5
Political science, government	223	75	.7	.4	19.2	14.7
Social science, general program	352	139	1.1	.7	31.3	24.8
Social work, social administration	185	92	.6	.5	47.1	61.3
Sociology	180	127	.6	.6	27.9	31.6
Other	290	170	.9	.8	12.4	15.6
Geography	60	32	.2	.2	19.6	19.9

Table 91.—Earned Master's Degrees Conferred on Women, by Selected Fields of Study, 1956 and 1964—Continued

Selected field of study	Number		Percent distribution		As percent of all master's degrees conferred	
	1964	1956	1964	1956	1964	1956
Basic and applied sciences	3,228	1,246	10.1	6.2	12.1	10.0
Biological sciences	948	380	3.0	1.9	28.8	21.6
Health professions	1,011	422	3.1	2.1	44.0	33.2
Mathematical subjects	689	179	2.1	.9	19.1	19.9
Physical sciences	410	220	1.3	1.1	9.0	8.3
Other	170	45	.5	.2	1.3	.8
Other professional fields	1,445	821	4.5	4.1	16.6	18.9
Business and commerce	197	153	.6	.8	3.1	4.9
Home economics	578	442	1.8	2.2	97.0	98.0
Library science	554	143	1.7	.7	77.7	82.7
Other	116	83	.4	.4	11.1	13.7

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education: "Earned Degrees, 1955-56" and "Earned Degrees, 1963-64."

(table 92). On the other hand, larger proportions of women earned degrees at the doctorate level than at lower levels in basic and applied sciences and psychology. This reflects the need for more advanced training in these two disciplines.

The proportion of all doctor's degrees conferred earned by women is relatively small in every subject except home economics (88 percent). Women received 26 percent of the doctorates in foreign languages and literature and about 20 percent in education, psychology, and English and journalism, but they received only 5 percent of the doctor's degrees in mathematical subjects and the physical sciences.

Changes in women's majors between 1956 and 1964.—Between 1956 and 1964 there appears to have been a gradual shifting away from the fields of education and home economics, long popular fields of study among women, and a quickening interest in the field of basic and applied sciences, especially in the biological sciences and mathematical subjects. But many women still seek degrees in the humanities and the arts, particularly English and journalism, and in the social sciences, especially history.

Bachelor's and first professional degrees.—Education as a field of study was slightly less popular with women undergraduate students in 1964 than in 1956. Relatively more majored in the fields of the humanities and the arts, the social sciences, and the basic and applied

Table 92.—Earned Doctor's Degrees Conferred on Women, by Selected Fields of Study, 1956 and 1964

Selected field of study	Number		Percent distribution		As percent of all doctor's degrees conferred	
	1964	1956	1964	1956	1964	1956
Total	1,535	885	100.0	100.0	10.6	9.9
Education [1]	456	282	29.7	31.9	19.4	17.8
Humanities and the arts	296	166	19.3	18.8	16.3	13.3
English and journalism	116	59	7.6	6.7	20.4	15.2
Fine and applied arts	64	31	4.2	3.5	15.2	13.2
Foreign languages, literature	97	50	6.3	5.6	25.9	19.8
Religion and philosophy	17	20	1.1	2.3	3.8	6.7
Other	2	6	.1	.7	(2)	(2)
Psychology	182	86	11.9	9.7	19.4	13.6
Social sciences	177	112	11.5	12.7	9.6	9.6
Basic and applied sciences	371	208	24.2	23.5	5.2	5.1
Biological sciences	193	117	12.6	13.2	11.9	11.4
Health professions	19	7	1.2	.8	9.9	(2)
Mathematical subjects	29	10	1.9	1.1	4.9	(2)
Physical sciences	113	68	7.4	7.7	4.6	4.1
Other	17	6	1.1	.7	.8	(2)
Other professional fields	53	31	3.5	3.5	12.6	14.8
Business and commerce	7	-------	.5	-----	(2)	-----
Home economics	36	28	2.3	3.2	87.8	84.8
Library science	4	1	.3	.1	(2)	(2)
Other	6	2	.4	.2	(2)	(2)

[1] Includes a small number who earned doctor's degrees in art education, business and commercial education, elementary education, home economics education, music education, physical education, secondary education, speech correction, and others.

[2] Base too small for information to be significant.

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education: "Earned Degrees, 1955-56" and "Earned Degrees, 1963-64."

sciences in 1964 than in 1956. By subjects, the rise in the number of degrees earned by women was particularly outstanding in foreign languages and literature (more than tripled), in mathematical subjects (increased almost fourfold), and in speech correction (rose nearly fivefold).

Master's degrees.—The most significant change between 1956 and 1964 at the second degree level was the decline in the importance of education as a field of study. In just 8 years the proportion of all master's degrees earned by women in this field dropped from 71 to 59 percent. Each of the other broad fields of study was more popular at this level in 1964 than in 1956. Of special significance is the fact that the number of master's degrees earned by women in the basic and applied sciences more than doubled, and in mathematical subjects the number increased nearly fourfold.

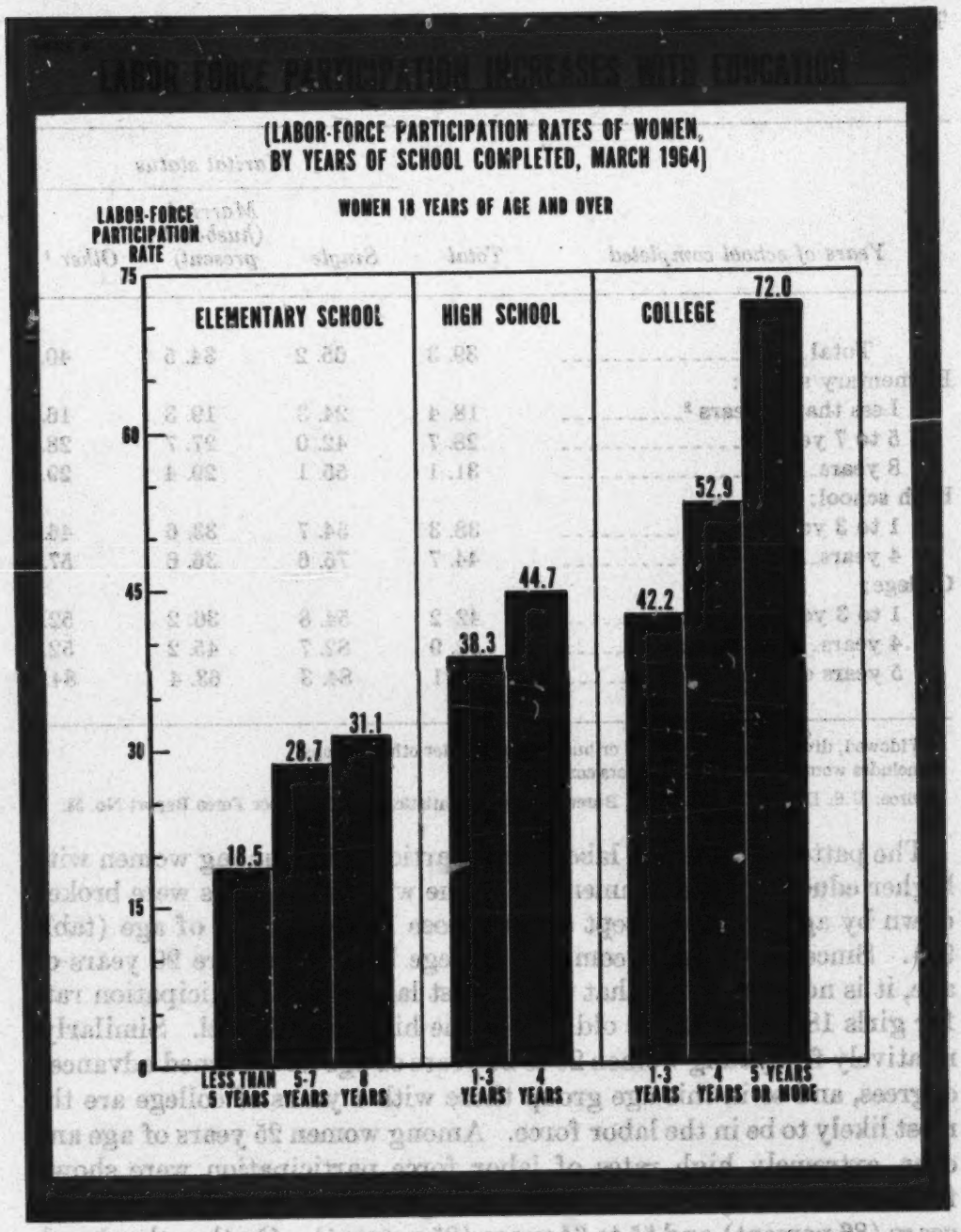
Doctor's degrees.—There was little change between 1956 and 1964 in the proportion of doctor's degrees earned by women by field of study. Psychology was slightly more popular in 1964 than in 1956, and education and social sciences were slightly less popular.

Educational Attainment and Labor Force Participation

There is a direct relationship between the educational attainment of women and their labor force participation. The more education a woman has received, the greater the likelihood that she will be engaged in paid employment. A high school diploma is a prerequisite for many jobs today, and there is an increasing demand for workers with education above the high school level. A shortage of personnel with the necessary technical and professional training to fill the complex requirements of many positions in this era of technological change is acute and is expected to continue. Moreover, women who have completed 4 years or more of college are motivated to seek employment outside the home because of the higher earnings available to them and because of a desire to use the skills they have acquired through higher education.

In March 1964, 72 percent of the women 18 years of age and over who had completed 5 years or more of college and 53 percent of those who had earned a bachelor's degree were in the labor force (chart U). The percentage dropped to 45 percent among those who were high school graduates and to 31 percent among those who did not go beyond the eighth grade. The chances of being employed were even slimmer for women who had less than 5 years of formal education.

The relationship between educational attainment and labor force participation is almost as strong among married women (husband present) as it is among single women and women who are divorced, separated, or widowed. Thus the highest labor-force participation



rate among women in each marital group in March 1964 was for those with 5 years or more of college—84 percent for both single women and women with other marital status and 63 percent for married women (husband present) (table 93). Moreover, the lowest rates of labor force participation were among women with less than 5 years of schooling—whether they were single, married (husband present), or widowed, divorced, or separated.

Table 93.—Labor-Force Participation Rates of Women, by Educational Attainment and Marital Status, March 1964

(Women 18 years of age and over)

Years of school completed	Total	Marital status		
		Single	Married (husband present)	Other [1]
Total	39.3	65.2	34.5	40.5
Elementary school:				
Less than 5 years [2]	18.4	24.3	19.3	16.6
5 to 7 years	28.7	42.0	27.7	28.4
8 years	31.1	55.1	29.4	29.9
High school:				
1 to 3 years	38.3	54.7	33.6	46.9
4 years	44.7	75.6	36.6	57.7
College:				
1 to 3 years	42.2	54.8	36.2	52.5
4 years	52.9	82.7	45.2	52.0
5 years or more	72.1	84.3	63.4	84.3

[1] Widowed, divorced, and separated or husband absent for other reasons.
[2] Includes women with no school years completed.
Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 53.

The pattern of greater labor force participation among women with higher educational attainment held true when the figures were broken down by age groups, except among those 18 to 24 years of age (table 94). Since few women complete college before they are 20 years of age, it is not surprising that the highest labor-force participation rate for girls 18 and 19 years old was at the high school level. Similarly, relatively few young women 20 to 24 years of age have earned advanced degrees, and so in this age group those with 4 years of college are the most likely to be in the labor force. Among women 25 years of age and over, extremely high rates of labor force participation were shown for those with 5 years or more of college in the age groups 45 to 54 years (86 percent) and 55 to 64 years (85 percent). On the other hand, only in age groups 35 to 44 and 45 to 54 years were as many as 40 percent of the women with less than 8 years of schooling in the labor force.

Table 94.—Labor-Force Participation Rates of Women, by Educational Attainment and Age, March 1964

(Women 18 years of age and over)

Years of school completed	Total	Age						
		18 and 19 years	20 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 to 64 years	65 years and over
Total	39.3	45.9	49.4	37.4	44.7	51.4	40.6	10.5
Elementary school:								
Less than 8 years [1]	25.1	[2] 35.3	33.8	31.5	39.5	43.3	29.7	6.3
Less than 5 years [1]	18.5	[2] 13.6	[2] 22.4	28.5	31.8	43.1	25.4	6.1
5 to 7 years	28.7	[2] 44.4	38.5	32.9	42.2	43.3	32.0	6.4
8 years	31.1	[2] 28.8	44.4	39.0	43.8	43.5	36.7	8.8
High school:								
1 to 3 years	38.3	36.4	34.5	35.8	44.9	49.8	41.1	12.2
4 years	44.7	54.6	53.7	36.4	44.7	54.8	45.7	16.3
College:								
1 to 3 years	42.2	30.4	48.9	35.4	44.2	55.2	46.7	14.6
4 years	52.9	--------	77.4	48.1	49.6	61.3	59.1	19.9
5 years or more	72.0	--------	[2] 71.4	64.6	66.1	85.5	84.8	[2] 44.0

[1] Includes women reporting no school years completed.

[2] Base is less than 100,000.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 53.

Educational Attainment and Occupations

The amount of education a woman has completed determines to a great extent the type of job she can obtain. Thus in March 1964 over half the employed women who had attended college were in professional and technical occupations (table 95). On the other hand, three-fourths of those who had attended elementary school only were operatives or service workers.

Among women who had attended college, there was a considerable variation in occupational distribution according to the number of years of school completed. For example, 87 percent of the women with 5 years or more of college were in professional and technical occupations, and another 4 percent were nonfarm managers, officials, and proprietors. In contrast, only 26 percent of the women who had completed 1 to 3 years of college were in professional and technical occupations, with 46 percent in clerical work.

Among women who had completed high school but had not gone on to college, the majority (51 percent) were clerical workers. Many of the remainder were service workers outside the home (13 percent) or operatives (10 percent). On the other hand, only a small proportion (20 percent) of the women who had attended but not completed high school were clerical workers. Such dropouts were mainly operatives (25 percent) or service workers outside the home (24 percent).

Women who had not gone beyond the elementary grades were particularly disadvantaged occupationally. Among those who had completed 8 years of schooling, only 9 percent were in clerical occupations, with the largest proportions working as operatives (33 percent), service workers outside the home (24 percent), or private-household workers (15 percent). And the most disadvantaged of all were those with less than 5 years of schooling. The largest proportion of these women were private-household workers (34 percent), followed by operatives (31 percent).

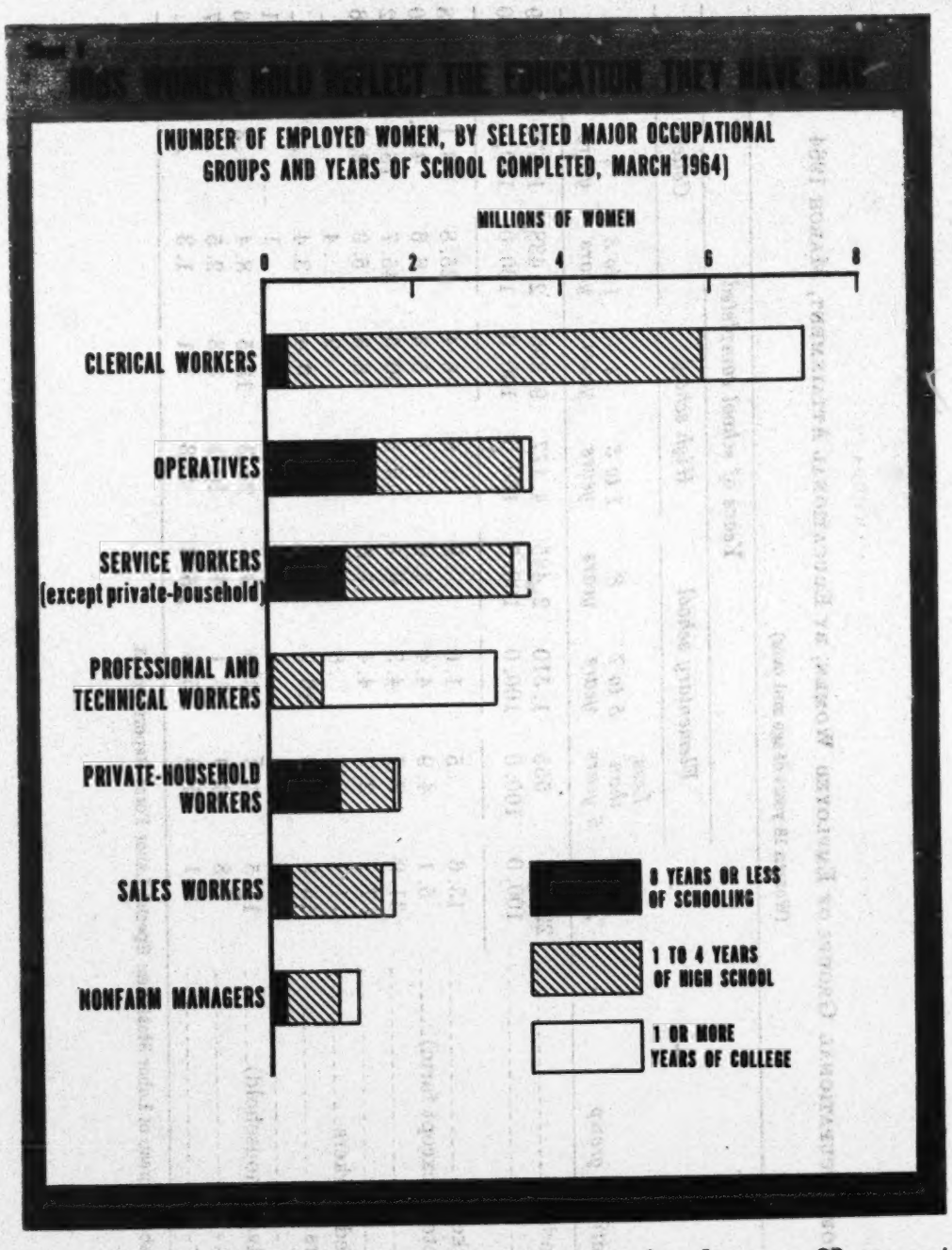
The close relationship between education and occupation is also evident from an analysis of the amount of education received by women employed in each of the major occupational groups (chart V). Of the 3.1 million women employed in professional and technical occupations in March 1964, 77 percent had attended college and 57 percent had graduated (table 96). Of the 7.3 million clerical workers, 77 percent had attended high school, with 65 percent of them high school graduates. Another 19 percent had some college training. Among the 1.2 million women employed as managers, officials, and proprietors (except farm), there was considerably more diversity in

Table 95.—Major Occupational Groups of Employed Women, by Educational Attainment, March 1964

(Women 18 years of age and over)

Major occupational group	Total	Years of school completed							
		Elementary school			High school		College		
		Less than 5 years	5 to 7 years	8 years	1 to 3 years	4 years	1 to 3 years	4 years	5 years or more
Number (in thousands)	22,836	555	1,510	2,485	4,177	9,396	2,438	1,576	699
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Professional, technical workers	13.6	.5	1.0	.8	1.8	6.4	25.8	73.1	86.8
Managers, officials, proprietors (except farm)	5.1	4.9	4.4	3.9	5.1	5.3	6.6	4.8	4.0
Clerical, kindred workers	31.9	2.7	4.3	9.1	19.5	50.6	45.7	15.2	5.2
Sales workers	7.1	2.7	4.4	7.5	9.1	8.3	5.9	2.5	1.6
Craftsmen, foremen, kindred workers	1.1	.7	.6	1.9	1.9	.9	.4	.3	-------
Operatives, kindred workers	15.6	30.8	30.2	33.0	24.7	10.4	3.4	1.8	-------
Nonfarm laborers	.3	.9	.5	.5	.6	.2	.1	------	1.1
Service workers (except private-household)	15.5	17.3	23.0	23.7	24.3	13.5	8.4	1.3	.6
Private-household workers	7.8	33.9	26.1	14.5	10.5	3.3	2.5	.7	.7
Farm workers	2.1	5.6	5.5	5.2	2.3	1.1	1.3	.3	-------

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 53.



educational attainment. In this major occupational group, 23 percent had attended college, 61 percent had attended high school (43 percent had graduated), and 16 percent had 8 years or less of schooling. Among operatives, however, although 56 percent had attended high school, only 27 percent were high school graduates, and another 41 percent had 8 years or less of education. Finally, among private-household workers and farm workers, more than half of the employed women had an eighth grade education or less.

Table 96.—Educational Attainment of Employed Women, by Major Occupational Group, March 1964

(Women 18 years of age and over)

Major occupational group	Number (in thousands)	Percent distribution by years of school completed								
		Total	Elementary school			High school		College		
			Less than 5 years	5 to 7 years	8 years	1 to 3 years	4 years	1 to 3 years	4 years	5 years or more
Total	22,836	100.0	2.4	6.6	10.9	18.3	41.2	10.7	6.9	3.1
Professional, technical workers	3,097	100.0	.1	.5	.6	2.5	19.3	20.3	37.2	19.6
Managers, officials, proprietors (except farm)	1,163	100.0	2.3	5.7	8.3	18.4	42.6	13.8	6.5	2.4
Clerical, kindred workers	7,276	100.0	.2	.9	3.1	11.2	65.4	15.3	3.3	.5
Sales workers	1,627	100.0	.9	4.1	11.5	23.5	48.2	8.8	2.4	.7
Craftsmen, foremen, kindred workers	241	100.0	1.7	3.7	19.9	32.8	36.1	4.1	1.7	-------
Operatives, kindred workers	3,563	100.0	4.8	12.8	23.0	28.9	27.4	2.3	.8	-------
Nonfarm laborers	72	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Service workers (except private-household)	3,544	100.0	2.7	9.8	16.6	28.7	35.7	5.8	.6	.1
Private-household workers	1,775	100.0	10.6	22.2	20.3	24.7	17.7	3.5	.6	.3
Farm workers	478	100.0	6.4	17.3	26.8	20.6	21.4	6.4	1.0	-------

[1] Percents not shown where base is less than 100,000.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 53.

86. Occupations of High School Graduates and School Dropouts

The occupational advantages enjoyed by girls 16 to 21 years of age who have completed high school compared with girls who dropped out of school have been analyzed by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in a study of the employment of high school graduates and dropouts in 1963. Of the 1.7 million girls who had graduated from high school but were not enrolled in college, 61 percent were employed in clerical jobs (table 97). Another 12 percent were service workers (except private-household), 8 percent were professional and technical workers, and 7 percent were operatives. In contrast, among the half million girls who had dropped out of school, 30 percent were operatives, 25 percent were service workers (except private-household), and 15 percent were private-household workers. Only 11 percent had obtained clerical jobs.

The contrast in occupational opportunities for graduates and dropouts is even sharper among nonwhite girls 16 to 21 years of age. Nearly half of the nonwhite graduates were employed as clerical workers or service workers (except private-household). On the other hand, three-fourths of the nonwhite dropouts were employed as service workers either inside or outside the home or as farm laborers and foremen.

87. College Majors and Occupations

The extent to which college-trained women were employed in occupations related to their major field of study was reported in a survey conducted in April 1963 by the Office of Manpower, Automation and Training.[5] This survey showed that women college graduates were more likely to be working in occupations related to their major fields of study than were women with 3 years of college—82 percent and 66 percent, respectively. The proportion of women with 4 years or more of college utilizing their college majors in their current work was higher in some fields than in others. Over 90 percent of the women graduates majoring in education and the health sciences used their college training in their jobs, as did 88 percent of the women graduates who majored in business. However, among women graduates with majors in the social sciences and the humanities, only 76 percent and 69 percent, respectively, were using their academic training. Nongrad-

[5] "Formal Occupational Training of Adult Workers." Manpower Automation Research Monograph No. 2. Office of Manpower, Automation and Training, Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor. 1964.

Table 97.—Major Occupational Groups of Employed Girl High School Graduates[1] and School Dropouts, by Color, October 1963

(Girls 16 to 21 years of age)

Major occupational group	Total		White		Nonwhite	
	Graduates	Dropouts	Graduates	Dropouts	Graduates	Dropouts
Number (in thousands)	1,733	490	1,623	388	110	102
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Professional, technical, kindred workers	8.1	.4	8.4	.5	3.6	----
Managers, officials, proprietors (except farm)	1.3	.8	1.4	1.0	----	----
Clerical, kindred workers	61.1	10.6	63.6	12.1	25.2	4.8
Sales workers	4.8	4.7	4.7	4.9	6.3	3.8
Craftsmen, foremen, kindred workers	.6	----	.6	----	----	----
Operatives, kindred workers	7.3	30.3	6.8	34.1	14.4	16.3
Nonfarm laborers	.3	.4	.2	.5	.9	----
Private-household workers	3.1	14.9	2.5	12.4	11.7	24.0
Service workers (except private-household)	12.2	25.3	11.4	24.6	23.4	27.9
Farmers, farm managers	----	----	----	----	----	----
Farm laborers, foremen	1.3	12.6	.4	9.8	14.4	23.1

[1] Not enrolled in college.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 41.

uates with 3 years of college who had majored in the health sciences were more likely to be using their majors (93 percent) than were those who had majored in education (65 percent).

Educational Attainment and Unemployment

There is a fairly close correlation between limited education and unemployment. (For further information on unemployed women, see section 40.) Women who have not graduated from high school generally experience more unemployment than do those with more formal education. In March 1964 women with only 8 years of schooling had an unemployment rate of 6.2 percent (table 98). In contrast, women who had completed high school but had not attended college had an unemployment rate of 5.6 percent. Women who have graduated from college run the least risk of unemployment—their unemployment rate was only 1.6 percent in March 1964.

Table 98.—Unemployment Rates of Women, by Educational Attainment and Color, March 1964

(Women 18 years of age and over)

Years of school completed	*Total*	*White*	*Nonwhite*
Total	6.1	5.4	10.8
Elementary school:			
Less than 5 years [1]	6.6	8.9	8.9
5 to 7 years	9.9		
8 years	6.2	6.0	
High school:			
1 to 3 years	8.5	7.3	14.4
4 years	5.6	5.1	10.2
College:			
1 to 3 years	5.2	4.5	
4 years or more	1.6	1.7	

[1] Includes persons reporting no school years completed.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 53.

Unemployment is higher among nonwhite women than among white women at all educational levels. However, the correlation between educational attainment and unemployment is not as clear for nonwhite women. Among all nonwhite women 18 years of age and over in the labor force in March 1964, those with 8 years of education or less had a lower unemployment rate (8.9 percent) than did those with at least a high school education (10.2 percent) or those with 1 to 3 years of high school (14.4 percent). This may be explained

in part by the fact that nonwhite women who have attended or completed high school may not be satisfied to work at semiskilled and unskilled occupations and have difficulty in finding and qualifying for more desirable work, especially in Southern States where they are concentrated. However, nonwhite women 35 years of age and over who were at least high school graduates had a lower unemployment rate than those with 8 years or less of formal schooling or those with 1 to 3 years of high school.

Another measure of the relationship between education and unemployment is a comparison of the years of school completed by employed and unemployed women in the labor force. One-fourth of the women 18 years of age and over who were unemployed in March 1964 had an eighth grade education or less (table 99). In contrast, only one-fifth of the employed women had so little schooling. Moreover, half of the unemployed, but less than two-fifths of the employed women, had not completed high school. At the upper end of the education scale, 1 out of 40 of the unemployed was a college graduate compared with 1 out of 10 of the employed.

Among white women the same pattern of greater educational attainment among the employed than among the unemployed held true. However, among nonwhite women a larger proportion of the employed (36 percent) than of the unemployed (30 percent) had an eighth grade education or less. Moreover, a smaller proportion of the employed (26 percent) than of the unemployed (28 percent) had completed high school but had not attended college. Only at the upper end of the scale—among those who had 1 year or more of college—did the proportion of the employed (14 percent) exceed that of the unemployed (9 percent).

Educational Attainment and Hours of Work

Women with a limited amount of formal education are more likely to be employed part time than are highly educated women. Many of the occupational opportunities available to women with little schooling are in service work or private-household work—typically part-time jobs. In March 1964 about one-third of all women with less than 8 years of formal education employed in nonagricultural industries worked less than 35 hours a week (table 100). In contrast, less than one-fourth of the women who had completed high school but had not attended college were working part time, and only about one-fifth of the women who had 4 years or more of college worked less than 35 hours a week.

Table 99.—Educational Attainment of Women in the Labor Force, by Employment Status and Color, March 1964

(Women 18 years of age and over)

Years of school completed	All women		White women		Nonwhite women	
	Employed	Unemployed	Employed	Unemployed	Employed	Unemployed
Number (in thousands)	22,836	1,490	20,034	1,148	2,802	342
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Elementary school:						
Less than 5 years [1]	2.4	2.8	1.8	1.8	7.3	5.6
5 to 7 years	6.6	11.1	5.1	9.6	17.2	16.4
8 years	10.9	11.1	10.8	11.9	11.4	7.9
High school:						
1 to 3 years	18.3	26.0	17.5	24.1	24.1	33.0
4 years	41.1	37.4	43.2	40.3	26.4	28.1
College:						
1 to 3 years	10.7	9.1	11.1	12.2	7.7	9.1
4 years	6.9	1.7	7.3		3.9	
5 years or more	3.1	.8	3.2		2.1	
Median years of school completed	12.3	11.9	12.3	12.1	10.8	10.8

[1] Includes women reporting no school years completed.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 53.

Table 100.—Hours of Work of Women Employed in Nonagricultural Industries, by Educational Attainment, March 1964

(Women 18 years of age and over)

Years of school completed	Number	Percent distribution		
		Total	35 hours or more	1 to 34 hours
Total	[1] 22,295,000	100.0	73.4	26.6
Elementary school:				
1 to 4 years	438,000	100.0	67.4	32.6
5 to 7 years	1,420,000	100.0	64.2	35.8
8 years	2,355,000	100.0	70.9	29.1
High school:				
1 to 3 years	4,060,000	100.0	69.4	30.6
4 years	9,275,000	100.0	76.2	23.8
College:				
1 to 3 years	2,392,000	100.0	71.3	28.7
4 years	1,571,000	100.0	79.8	20.2
5 years or more	699,000	100.0	81.7	18.3

[1] Includes 85,000 women with no years of school completed.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 53.

Training Programs for Women

Opportunities are available to women and girls through a variety of federally assisted programs designed to offer training or retraining to the high school girl, the dropout, the employed woman, the displaced worker, and the disadvantaged.

In recent years the particular attention of those concerned with training programs has been drawn toward two divergent manpower problems that characterize our dynamic American economy: on one hand, a shortage of highly trained, experienced professional and technical workers and, on the other hand, large numbers of disadvantaged people who lack the education and skills necessary for sustained employment. Various new Government training programs have been developed to help these disadvantaged people become useful, self-supporting, and self-respecting members of our society, to help them make a productive contribution to our economic life, and to help them build meaningful and rewarding lives for themselves and their families.

88. Federally Aided Vocational Training

Vocational education through cooperative Federal-State-local programs is the oldest federally aided training program—initiated nearly half a century ago under the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 and gradually extended under subsequent acts. The Vocational Education Act of 1963 provided for further broadening, enlarging, and improving of vocational programs.

Federally aided vocational training—originally restricted to home economics, trades and industry, and agriculture—has been broadened to include education for distributive (merchandising and marketing), health, technical, and most recently (under the Vocational Education Act of 1963) business and office occupations.

In addition to authorizing Federal assistance for training in business and office occupations, the Vocational Education Act of 1963 provides for preemployment training of more technicians and semiprofessional workers than formerly and emphasizes training at the post-secondary-school level for this group. It also encourages the training of service workers.

Greater flexibility in vocational education was made possible by provisions in the 1963 act for special programs for young people and adults with socioeconomic handicaps. The 1963 act also authorized funds for an experimental work-study program in which students are paid for part-time work at school or some other public agency.

Some vocational education courses are arranged to allow alternate periods of work and class attendance. Industrial-plant training that is part of the arrangement must be under public supervision to assure that actual vocational training is provided. Participants are called "student-learners" to distinguish them from learners whose wages and hours are regulated by the U.S. Department of Labor under the Federal Fair Labor Standards Act or by State law.

Over 2.3 million women and girls were enrolled in public vocational courses in the 1963–64 school year (table 101). Of these, 39.2 percent were enrolled in adult extension courses. Most of the rest were full-time students in secondary schools, although a growing number were enrolled in post-secondary-school programs. Women accounted for a little more than half of the total enrollment in public vocational courses in 1963–64.

About 2 million, or 85 percent, of the women receiving federally aided vocational training in 1963–64 were enrolled in home economics classes. While formerly the general purpose of home economics education was to help improve the quality of home and family life, the Vocational Education Act of 1963 added the purpose of fitting in-

Table 101.—Women Enrolled in Public Vocational Courses, 1963–64

Program [1]	Women enrollees			Women enrolled in adult extension courses	
	Number	Percent distribution	As percent of total enrollees	Number	As percent of women in program
Total	2,311,068	100.0	50.5	905,582	39.2
Home economics	1,967,073	85.1	97.3	693,189	35.2
Distribution	152,008	6.6	45.5	125,924	82.8
Trades and industry	[2] 112,040	4.8	10.5	61,836	55.2
Health occupations	64,247	2.8	95.8	15,481	24.1
Technical occupations	15,700	.7	7.1	9,152	58.3

[1] Only five programs are included because enrollment of women in agricultural classes is negligible.
[2] Includes 3,213 enrolled in general continuation classes.

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Division of Vocational and Technical Education.

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dividuals for gainful employment in any occupation involving knowledge and skills in home economics subjects. These include foods, clothing, home furnishings, home management, child growth and development, and consumer education.

The 152,008 women participating in the distributive education program during the 1963–64 school year were studying such subjects as salesmanship, buying, pricing, advertising and display, fashion, and business organization. Some students, employed at least 15 hours a week in a distributive occupation, were in cooperative programs, which combine work experience with classroom training and enable students to complete their high school education.

About 112,040 women were enrolled in trades and industry courses in 1963–64. The most commonly offered courses in this area in recent years have been beauty culture, power-machine operation, and consumer foods. More than 3,000 of the trades and industry students were in general continuation classes.

Vocational courses for women health workers have expanded noticeably in recent years—enrollments increased from 38,000 in 1956 to 64,247 in 1963–64. This growth reflects both the stimulus of Federal funds and the increasing demand for hospital and other personnel required to supplement the services of professional nurses. Programs of study in the health occupations supportive to the professions of nursing, medicine, and dentistry include practical nursing, certified laboratory assisting, and dental assisting. More than 50 new regular programs for practical nurses have been initiated annually since 1956, and dental assistant training has been increasing rapidly. These programs are carried out in cooperation with hospitals and other health agencies.

89. *Training Under the Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA)*

The Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 provides for a diversified nationwide training program for unemployed and underemployed workers. Allowances are available for certain trainees, such as persons who have had at least 2 years of gainful employment and who are heads of families or members of households whose head is unemployed, members of farm families with less than $1,200 annual net family income, and young people between the ages of 17 and 21 who are out of school and out of work. In 1963 the program was expanded to serve persons who need basic education and others who require supplementary allowances or part-time employment to enter or remain in training.

The 1965 Manpower Act amended the Manpower Development and Training Act by extending the training programs for 3 years, providing for expanded research and experimental programs, stimulating job development programs, liberalizing training allowances for those in greatest need, and liberalizing the State fund-matching provisions. Important provisions of the 1965 act were authorization for on-the-job trainees to engage in part-time work outside their training program for up to 20 hours a week of paid employment without reduction in their training allowance; extension of eligibility for training allowances to single persons not living as members of a family or household group; and provision of refresher training for unemployed professional workers.

Almost 28,000 women trainees, including about 9,000 nonwhite women, were enrolled in institutional projects started in 1964 under this program. A very high percentage of those who completed the courses were placed in jobs.

In 1964 the already wide choice of courses offered to women was augmented by 100 training occupations. Among the new programs, for example, were refresher courses in teaching and technical illustrating. Other courses offered were console operator, grocery checker, special-diet worker, geriatrics nursing assistant, and attendant at children's institutions. However, most women trainees were enrolled in a relatively limited group of occupational categories (table 102). About half were preparing for clerical or sales work; more were being trained for stenographic work than for any other single type of work. About 1 out of 8 received training to be a licensed practical nurse; another 1 out of 8, to be a nurses' aide.

Among significant characteristics of trainees in five of the most popular occupational programs for women were the relatively high proportions who were family heads, high school graduates, or long-term unemployed (table 103).

More than one-third of white and nearly two-fifths of nonwhite women trainees in all MDTA programs in 1964 were under 22 years old (table 104). Almost half of the white and almost three-fifths of the nonwhite trainees were between 22 and 44 years of age. A relatively large proportion of all trainees (about 68 percent of white and 64 percent of nonwhite women trainees) had completed at least 12 years of schooling.

In 1964, 2 out of 5 women trainees under the MDTA were the primary wage earners in their families, normally earning at least 60 percent of the total family income. More than 1 out of 3 was a family head with dependents.

Table 102.—Occupations for Which Women Were Trained Under MDTA Institutional Training Programs, 1964

Occupation	Percent distribution
Total	100.0
Professional and managerial [1]	14.5
Licensed practical nurse	12.3
Other	2.2
Clerical and sales	50.3
Stenographer	20.4
Typist/clerk-typist	12.4
Clerk (general office)	6.4
Saleswoman	2.1
Secretary	1.9
Other	7.2
Service	22.9
Nurses' aide	13.2
Waitress	2.0
Cook	1.3
Ward attendant	1.1
Other	5.3
Skilled	1.7
Semiskilled	7.7
Sewing machine operator	2.7
Machine stitcher and sewer (boot and shoe)	.9
Solderer	.9
Other	3.2
Other [2]	2.8

[1] Most training in this group is at the semiprofessional or technical level.
[2] Primarily agricultural.

Source: "Manpower Research and Training Under the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962. Report by the Secretary of Labor." March 1965.

Thirty-six percent of the women trainees were eligible for regular allowances granted to the unemployed who have had at least 2 years' employment experience. Eleven percent of the women trainees were eligible for youth allowances, which may be granted to unemployed young people 17 through 21 years of age who do not qualify for the regular allowance and who are enrolled in special youth programs.

Table 103.—Characteristics of Trainees in Selected MDTA Institutional Training Programs, 1964

Characteristics of trainees	Occupation and length of course				
	Stenographer (18–52 weeks)	Nurses' aide and orderly (3–41 weeks)	Typist and clerk-typist (10–29 weeks)	Licensed practical nurse (40–52 weeks)	General office clerk (5–51 weeks)
Percent of trainees who were:					
Women	98	91	93	95	94
Under 22 years of age	42	37	37	23	38
45 years of age and over	8	13	14	14	11
Family heads	35	34	34	46	40
High school graduates	85	48	75	74	73
Long-term unemployed [1]	52	59	55	53	55
Nonwhite	21	46	41	27	26
Without significant prior work experience	25	31	24	18	27
With previous related experience in major occupational group:					
Clerical and sales	48	----------	42	21	40
Service	----------	36	------	48	----------
Service and unskilled	----------	----------	23	----------	----------

[1] Unemployed 15 weeks or more.

Source: "Manpower Research and Training Under the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962. Report by the Secretary of Labor." March 1965.

Table 104.—Women Enrolled in MDTA Institutional Training Programs, by Age, Education, and Color, 1964

(Percent distribution)

Age and education	Women trainees enrolled	
	White	Nonwhite
Age		
Total	100.0	100.0
Under 19 years	16.8	12.0
19 to 21 years	18.7	26.8
22 to 34 years	25.5	42.5
35 to 44 years	22.5	14.3
45 years and over	16.4	4.4
Education		
Total	100.0	100.0
Elementary school:		
Less than 8 years	2.7	4.4
8 years	4.8	4.2
High school:		
1 to 3 years	24.7	27.2
4 years	59.3	55.2
College: Some	8.5	9.0

Source: "Manpower Research and Training Under the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962. Report by the Secretary of Labor." March 1965.

90. *Training Under the Area Redevelopment Act (ARA)*

Training for jobless and underemployed workers in economically distressed areas was conducted under the Area Redevelopment Act of 1961. From November 1961 to January 31, 1965, almost 13,000 women were enrolled in ARA courses (table 105). In 1964 women constituted about 55 percent of the total trainees enrolled. More than half of the women enrollees were in the 22- to 44-year age group. About 57 percent of all the women had 12 years or more of education, and about 20 percent were heads of their families or households. In 1965 the Area Redevelopment Act training programs were consolidated with those of the Manpower Development and Training Act.

91. *Training and Other Programs Under the Economic Opportunity Act*

As part of the war on poverty, a number of training opportunities have opened up under the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 which provide assistance to young women aged 16 to 21 years from low-

Table 105.—Characteristics of Women Enrolled in ARA Courses, by Age [1]

Characteristics of enrollees	Total	Age: Under 19 years	19 to 21 years	22 to 44 years	45 years and over
FAMILY STATUS					
Total	12,762	1,856	2,213	6,716	1,977
Head of family or household	2,528	97	263	1,649	519
Other	10,177	1,752	1,945	5,038	1,442
No report	57	7	5	29	16
YEARS OF SCHOOL COMPLETED					
Total	12,762	1,856	2,213	6,716	1,977
Elementary school:					
Less than 8 years	367	30	14	209	114
8 years	1,314	74	74	696	470
High school:					
1 to 3 years	3,771	413	528	2,194	636
4 years	6,574	1,312	1,460	3,200	602
College: 4 years or more	719	22	134	409	154
No report	17	5	3	8	1

[1] Figures are cumulative from October 1961 through January 31, 1965.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Office of Manpower, Automation and Training.

income families. The act authorized two training programs for young people from poor families: the Job Corps and the Neighborhood Youth Corps. Among other programs of special interest to women which were established under the act to combat poverty are the Work-Study Program, Volunteers in Service to America (VISTA), and Community Action Programs.

Job Corps.—The Job Corps, administered directly by the Office of Economic Opportunity, is a program for young people 16 to 21 years of age in the very low income groups who have not been able to find work, who have not completed secondary education, and whose reading and arithmetic skills range from fourth to seventh grade levels. Some high school graduates may be enrolled in exceptional cases. The Job Corps offers them a change of environment in residential centers and a total learning experience tailored to develop new habits and attitudes. At these residential centers deprived girls are prepared to become skillful workers, homemakers, and responsible citizens. The centers offer women basic education in reading, writing,

speaking skills, and arithmetic; training in job skills for which there is a demand; education in home and family life; participation in the arts to develop self-expression and motivation; recreation and training in physical fitness; and counseling, guidance, and health services.

In mid-1965, five centers, the first of several planned Job Corps residential centers for women, were providing educational and job training in such areas as business and clerical skills, retail occupations, food preparation and service, clothing service occupations, and educational, art, and health occupations.

Each young woman in the Job Corps receives a monthly living allowance of $30 in addition to room and board, medical and dental care, and work clothing. An allowance of $50 for each month of satisfactory service is paid her at the end of her service. She may allocate to her family up to $25 a month, which is matched by the Job Corps.

Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC).—The Neighborhood Youth Corps, a work-training program administered by the Department of Labor, is designed to provide unemployed young people from low-income families with part-time jobs that will enable them to stay in or return to school. In the case of young people not returning to school, it provides actual job training for up to 32 hours a week. This work experience is expected to increase their employability.

Ninety percent of the funds for such programs is provided by the Federal Government. Local public or private nonprofit sponsors contribute the rest. The local sponsoring organizations provide not only employment opportunities for the enrollees, but also work supervision, counseling, testing, remedial education, occupational training, and job referral and placement, as well as other services considered necessary to the success of the project.

As of June 30, 1965, about 155,000 young men and women were participating in this program and working an average of 12 hours a week. Types of occupations in which enrollees are gaining work experience include receptionist, storeroom helper, teachers' aide, library assistant, dietary helper, tutoring aide, hospital technicians' aide, and laboratory assistant.

Work-study program.—The work-study program under the Economic Opportunity Act, administered by the Office of Education of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, is designed to help students of limited means finance their college education by working part time at either on-campus or off-campus jobs. Off-campus employment is limited to work for a public or nonprofit private

organization in such fields as education, recreation, health, and social and community service. Work is limited to 15 hours weekly, including employment in projects connected with community action programs.

Participating institutions receive Federal allotments to pay for 90 percent of the working students' wages. Colleges and other employing agencies pay the remainder. Students' salaries are expected to be commensurate with the work involved and equal to the "going rate" of pay for such work in the area. In addition, students in the work-study program can be aided by loans under the National Defense Education Act. The total number of students participating has not yet been determined, but it is expected to be substantial.

Volunteers in Service to America (VISTA).—A domestic version of the Peace Corps, VISTA offers Americans the opportunity to join the war on poverty at home by working on a volunteer basis with the disadvantaged. Any person 18 years of age or older may apply; married couples are eligible if both the husband and wife qualify for service. Selected applicants are invited to participate in a 4- to 6-week training program at the beginning of their 1-year service period. They are trained for the job and location to which they are assigned as requested by interested jurisdictions. Training, which stresses supervised field experience, is conducted by local private and public organizations, including selected colleges and universities under the guidance of the Office of Economic Opportunity.

These volunteers help teach, train, and counsel impoverished Americans in rural and urban community action programs, Job Corps camps, migrant worker communities, Indian reservations, hospitals, schools, and institutions for the mentally ill or mentally retarded. Their assignments may be in any of the 50 States, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, the Virgin Islands, American Samoa, or the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands. Applicants may, however, express an area preference.

Volunteers receive a monthly living allowance varying according to locality, and are reimbursed for medical and dental expenses during service. In addition, they receive a readjustment allowance of $50 for each month of satisfactory service, to be paid upon completion of service. By June 1965 almost 20,000 men and women had applied.

Community action programs.—Under these programs individual communities decide how they want to do the job of fighting poverty through the use of existing private and public resources supplemented by Federal assistance. Programs may be in such areas as employment, job training and counseling, health, vocational rehabilitation, welfare, housing, home management, and remedial education.

92. *Training of Handicapped Women*

Programs designed to give handicapped men and women the particular services they need to become employable are known as vocational rehabilitation. As a separate field of work, rehabilitation involves the special skills of a variety of professions collaborating to solve the complex problems so often presented by severely disabled persons.

A public program of vocational rehabilitation for the disabled was established shortly after World War I. In response to the demand for a civilian program that emerged immediately after the needs of disabled soldiers had been considered, the Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1920 (Public Law 236) established a State-Federal program to help men and women handicapped as a result of accident, illness, or any other cause become employable. The law has been extended to include the rehabilitation of those who remain at home and perform housekeeping tasks and of the blind, the deaf, the hard of hearing, the emotionally or mentally ill, and the mentally retarded.

Because vocational rehabilitation under the act is designed to serve those disabled individuals who may become employable, three conditions must be met before a disabled person may receive services: The person must have a disability that represents a substantial handicap in securing employment; he must be of working age or near it (legal working age is determined by the laws of individual jurisdictions, 15 years being the usual minimum age); and there must be a reasonable prospect that the disabled person will be employable after completion of the program.

All the States, the District of Columbia, Guam, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands have vocational rehabilitation programs for disabled men and women in cooperation with the Federal Government. Jurisdictions match $2 on the average for every $3 from the Federal Government to finance the programs. No disabled person is considered rehabilitated until he has been placed in suitable employment after being provided with rehabilitation services. In most cases the criterion is successful accomplishment in paid employment, verified by personal followup. In some cases it is the ability to perform the important work of making a home; thus a woman who is needed as homemaker for her own family also may be accepted for rehabilitation.

In addition to counseling, training, and placement in a suitable job based on individual requirements, the program includes medical or physical therapy and the furnishing, in case of financial need, of such physical aids as hearing devices, trusses, artificial limbs, and braces. Also, the program provides some or all of the cost of tools and licenses needed in certain occupations and of room, board, and

travel during rehabilitation in cases where the disabled person lacks sufficient funds.

Of the more than 100,000 disabled persons who were restored to active life and employment through the State-Federal program of vocational rehabilitation in 1964, almost half (47,613) were women. The number of handicapped women who were helped in the last few decades has increased considerably, rising from 850 in 1930 to 3,069 in 1940, 19,667 in 1950, and 33,006 in 1960.

About 4,800 handicapped workers (both sexes) who were trained under vocational rehabilitation programs received supplemental training in 1964 under the Manpower Development and Training Act.[6] Handicapped trainees (both sexes) enrolled in MDTA institutional projects represented 7.1 percent of all MDTA trainees, but the proportion of handicapped female trainees was small—only 3.2 percent compared with 9.9 percent for handicapped men (table 106).

Table 106.—Handicapped Persons as a Percent of All Enrollees in MDTA Institutional Projects, by Sex and Age, 1964

Sex and age	*Percent*
Total	7.1
Women	3.2
Under 19 years	1.6
19 to 21 years	2.2
22 to 44 years	3.5
45 years and over	5.6
Men	9.9
Under 19 years	4.2
19 to 21 years	6.7
22 to 44 years	11.3
45 years and over	18.1

Source: "Manpower Research and Training Under the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962. A Report by the Secretary of Labor." March 1965.

93. *Apprenticeship Training*

One of the oldest systems of occupational training on the job for youth is apprenticeship. Apprentices are employed workers who receive formal instruction on the job, thus gaining practical experience and developing skills. When their terms of training are completed—usually after 4 years—they are awarded certificates as journeymen.

[6] "Manpower Research and Training Under the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962. A Report by the Secretary of Labor." March 1965.

Apprenticeship programs are directed by industry, usually through cooperative programs established by employers and labor organizations. They are closely related to the manpower needs of employers, who train for existing or prospective job vacancies.

The Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training in the Manpower Administration of the Department of Labor and cooperating State apprenticeship agencies encourage the formation and extension of apprenticeship training programs and approve standards for training. The Bureau and many of the State agencies operate through field offices throughout the United States. Federal- and State-approved programs are established for about 370 skilled occupations. Although statistics on apprentices by sex are not available, it is believed that women accounted for about 1 to 2 percent of the estimated 170,500 registered apprentices in training under such approved programs at the end of 1964.

The principal reason for the small number of women apprentices is that few women are employed in most of the trades recognized as "apprenticeable," either because of the physical demands of the occupation, as in the construction and metals trades, or because of the length of the training required. Some women, however, are being trained as bookbinders during a 2-year apprenticeship. This differs from the 4-year training period for male bookbinders mainly because women in this trade handle small and less complicated types of work. Other occupations in which women apprentices are sometimes trained include cosmetologist, dressmaker, dental technician, fur finisher, fabric cutter, and tailor.

Special Program for Private-Household Workers

The Women's Bureau, in cooperation with other government agencies and private organizations, is sponsoring a program to improve the social and economic status of private-household workers. This program is intended to help not only those currently employed in the occupation and their employers, but also many unemployed women and prospective employers. At the same time that many household positions cannot be filled because of the lack of qualified applicants, there are many unskilled unemployed women who could be trained for this occupation, and there are other women and girls who might enter the occupation if it were given more dignity.

The Women's Bureau sponsored a consultation with representatives of national organizations and government agencies in June 1964. At this meeting ways to stimulate improvement in working conditions

and standards as well as in worker qualifications and performance were discussed. A second consultation, held in February 1965, focused to a large extent, as did the earlier meeting, on private and government training and other programs directed toward improving the status of private-household work and making the occupation more attractive. The participating nongovernment organizations established a National Committee on Household Employment to coordinate the efforts of the many private organizations concerned with upgrading the status of the occupation, developing standards, and promoting the expansion of job opportunities in accordance with the objectives of the nationwide Job Development Program. That program, launched by President Johnson on February 1, 1965, calls for the development and extension of employment opportunities in a variety of service-type occupations—in business, at home, on the farm, and in the community—to provide jobs for the unemployed and underemployed.

The Women's Bureau and the National Committee on Household Employment currently are engaged in programs developed at the two consultations and in initiating projects under the Job Development Program.

Private-household workers include women employed in households as general household workers, housekeepers, maids, cleaning women, or laundresses.

Wages paid in this occupation are extremely low. Women private-household workers who worked full time the year round (slightly more than one-fifth of those employed) in 1964 earned a median of only $1,082. Their median total cash income, which includes wage and self-employment income as well as all forms of social insurance and public assistance payments, was only $1,265. Almost 7 out of 10 of all women private-household workers had total cash income under $1,000. Just over 1 out of 10 had as much as $2,000 total cash income.

The low annual wages (income) of women private-household workers reflect not only their low rates of pay, but also the intermittent character of their employment. At the time of the 1960 census,[7] less than 3 out of 10 of all women workers were working part time (less than 35 hours a week), but more than half of the women private-household workers were working part time. Moreover, while half of all women workers were employed a full year (50 to 52 weeks), only 4 out of 10 private-household workers were so employed.

Full-time private-household workers tended to work considerably longer hours than other employed women did. Thus at the time of the 1960 census almost 45 percent of the full-time private-household workers worked from 41 hours a week to more than 60 hours a week.

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[7] All 1960 census data in this section exclude babysitters.

In contrast, 25 percent of all women who worked full time reported these long hours.

The 1960 census data disclosed other characteristics of women private-household workers: 65 percent were nonwhite; their median age (46 years) was about 6 years more than that of all women in the labor force; more (54 percent) lived in the South than elsewhere; relatively few (11 percent) were "live-in" workers; and they had completed 8.4 years of school as compared with 12.1 years for all women in the labor force. Most significantly, a high proportion (an estimated 15 percent as a minimum) of women private-household workers were heads of families.

Private-household workers, as a group, clearly are disadvantaged economically. In addition, they are disadvantaged legislatively. While they are covered by social security if they earn a minimum of $50 from any one employer in a calendar quarter, they are virtually excluded from other protective legislation from which most workers benefit.

5

OUTLOOK FOR WOMEN WORKERS

The striking increase in this century in the proportions of women who work outside the home probably could not have been predicted by economists, sociologists, psychologists, and historians. Yet it is now a well-established fact of American society that each year more women join the labor force, almost doubling in number between 1940 and 1965. This trend is likely to continue.

Estimates of population growth for the United States project the total population at 226 million in 1975 and 245 million in 1980. To produce the goods and services needed for a population of this magnitude, the Department of Labor anticipates that the economy will have 94 million men and women workers in 1975 and 101 million in 1980.[1] These expected manpower requirements are based on the assumption that relatively full employment would be achieved so that the unemployment rate would be reduced to about 4 percent.[2]

Women workers will probably show a rise of 41 percent between 1964 and 1980, as compared with only 27 percent for men. Of the total labor force growth between 1964 and 1980, about 21 million (87 percent) will be due to population increases, and the remainder will be due to the continued rising labor-force participation rates of adult women.

In 1964, 37.0 percent of all women 14 years and over were in the labor force (table 107). This percentage is expected to increase steadily to 40.6 percent in 1980, while the corresponding rate for men shows no change between 1964 and 1980 and even a slight drop in 1970 and 1975. The labor-force participation rate of girls 14 to 19 years is projected to rise more slowly than that for all women—from 28.1 percent in 1964 to 31.0 percent in 1980. In sharp contrast, the rate of women in the 45- to 54-year-old group, which was 51.0 percent in 1964, is projected at 59.5 percent for 1980; and that of women 55 to 59 years old, which was 45.9 percent in 1964, is projected at 56.2 percent in 1980.

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[1] "Labor Force Projections for 1970–80." Special Labor Force Report No. 49. Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor. February 1965.

[2] Other assumptions underlying the projections are continuity of recent trends in economic and social patterns in our society and of scientific and technological advances, as well as the absence of cataclysmic events.

When women in the main working ages (18 to 64 years) are considered, the rise in the next 15 years in the percentage of women who are expected to work is even more apparent. In 1964, 44.4 percent of the women of these ages were working, but by 1980 about one-half of them (49.0 percent) probably will be in the labor force. Nevertheless, in the light of past trends all these projections are considered conservative.

Table 107.—Labor-Force Participation Rates, by Sex and by Age of Women, 1964 and Projected to 1980 [1]

(Persons 14 years of age and over)

Sex and age	Actual 1964	Projected 1970	Projected 1975	Projected 1980
Total	56.5	57.5	57.8	58.3
Men	77.2	77.0	76.9	77.2
Women	37.0	39.1	39.9	40.6
14 to 19 years	28.1	30.1	30.6	31.0
20 to 24 years	49.2	50.3	51.5	52.6
25 to 34 years	37.1	38.6	39.3	40.3
35 to 44 years	44.8	47.5	49.0	50.0
45 to 54 years	51.0	55.3	57.6	59.5
55 to 64 years	39.8	43.8	45.7	47.3
55 to 59 years	45.9	51.5	54.2	56.2
60 to 64 years	32.7	34.8	36.2	37.3
65 years and over	9.6	9.8	9.8	9.9
65 to 69 years	16.2	17.4	17.4	17.4
70 years and over	5.8	5.9	6.0	6.1
18 to 64 years	44.4	47.2	48.2	49.0

[1] Annual averages.

Source: "Manpower Report of the President and A Report on Manpower Requirements, Resources, Utilization, and Training by the U.S. Department of Labor." March 1965.

What jobs will be available for these women? Growth in the economy is, of course, never even. Industries have different growth rates: some will expand, others will show little change, and still others will decline as new industries develop. These changes will affect significantly the occupational structure within industries and the demand for workers with specific skills and educational attainment.[3]

Professional and technical workers are expected to be the most rapidly growing broad occupational group. Men and women in this group have the highest average educational attainment. The main

[3] For employment opportunities in specific occupations, see "Occupational Outlook Handbook," Bull. No. 1450, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, and publications of the Women's Bureau listed in the bibliography of this handbook.

demand in this group affecting women will be for teachers at all levels of education, but especially college teachers. Jobs for medical and dental technicians, as for all the health services occupations, also will be plentiful.

Service workers are another occupational group that will increase rapidly during the next decade. Among them, women will be in greatest demand as practical nurses, attendants in hospitals and other institutions, waitresses and cooks, counter and fountain workers, and charwomen and cleaners. Both clerical and sales workers also are expected to increase greatly in numbers. There will be many part-time opportunities for women in these occupations.

Among white-collar workers, the manager-proprietor group as a whole will increase somewhat. Among blue-collar workers, the group of craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers will show the greatest increase, while that of operatives will grow somewhat more slowly than in the last few years. Jobs for unskilled workers will decline.

Since turnover is generally greatest in occupations in which young women are employed—because large numbers of them leave the labor force to be married—the number needed for replacements is much greater than that needed for additional jobs. For example, about 8 percent of all elementary school teachers need to be replaced each year, but the net growth requirement in this occupation is estimated to be only 2 percent annually from 1964 to 1975.

The overall effect of both the divergent trends in manpower requirements in industry and the shifting occupational composition of the labor force within industry will be a continued strong demand in coming years for workers with high levels of education, skill, and training. Conversely, job opportunities for those with little schooling and training will continue to decrease.

This clearly indicates that women must take advantage of all the education and training available to them and develop their talents and abilities to the fullest extent possible. In this era of rising demand for more skilled workers and of accelerated automation, women must be positive and flexible in their attitudes—willing to learn and willing to make necessary changes. They must be alert to new job opportunities and to new training programs. Only if they are fully prepared by education, training, and the willingness to learn anew, will they be ready for the challenges and demands of tomorrow's society.

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Part II

Laws Governing Women's Employment and Status

HIGHLIGHTS

Minimum wage—34 States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico have minimum wage laws in operation that apply to women; of these, 23 apply also to men. An additional 3 States have minimum wage laws applicable to women, but they are not currently in operation.

Equal pay—25 States have equal pay laws; 5 States and the District of Columbia which have no equal pay laws have fair employment practices laws (D.C., police regulation) that prohibit discrimination in rate of pay or compensation based on sex.

Sex discrimination—10 States and the District of Columbia prohibit discrimination in private employment based on sex.

Hours of work—43 States and the District of Columbia regulate daily and/or weekly working hours for women; 25 States and the District of Columbia set maximum hours of 8 a day, or 48 or less a week, or both. (See footnote 4, p. 238.)

Nightwork—21 States and Puerto Rico prohibit and/or regulate the employment of adult women at night. (See footnote 4, p. 238.)

Industrial homework—19 States and Puerto Rico have industrial homework laws or regulations.

Employment before and after childbirth—6 States and Puerto Rico prohibit the employment of women immediately before and/or after childbirth.

Occupational limitations—25 States prohibit the employment of adult women in specified occupations or industries or under certain working conditions considered hazardous or injurious to health.

Jury duty—47 States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico permit women to serve on all juries. Alabama, Mississippi, and South Carolina bar women from State juries. Women are eligible for Federal jury service in all jurisdictions by virtue of the 1957 Federal Civil Rights Act.

Marriage laws—46 States require a premarital health examination for both applicants for a marriage license.

Married women's rights—All States recognize a married woman's legal capacity to contract her personal services outside the home. Married women generally have control of their own earnings; however, in 5 of the 8 community-property States, the wife's earnings are under the complete control of the husband.

6

RECOMMENDED STANDARDS FOR EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN

Development of Standards

Significant changes in women's work have been developing over the last century and a half. They have been the result of economic and technological progress and of demographic and social influences. Two world wars speeded up the process. Today women are an important part of the Nation's labor force. In large and increasing numbers they are employed in manufacturing goods or performing services for the public—working in factories, offices, schools, stores, hospitals, hotels, restaurants, and laundries. Over a million women are employed by Federal, State, and local governments; several million work in private households.

94. *Variations in Standards*

The Nation's best interests demand good labor standards for women, many of whom are mothers and homemakers as well as wage earners. In many instances employers have voluntarily established such standards for their employees. In other cases good standards have been adopted through collective bargaining between employers and workers. But when standards depend wholly on voluntary action, they often vary in adequacy from firm to firm, and many workers are completely unprotected. For this reason the States quite generally have set up standards for women's employment that govern wages, hours, and other conditions of work in a large number of occupations and industries. The standards vary from State to State, and not every State has established each type of standard.

Labor standards are not static but are influenced by continuously changing conditions. They change as a result of advancing scientific knowledge and a growing recognition by both workers and employers of the importance of good working conditions.

Minimum wage standards have been adjusted in many States to reflect rising prices and improved standards of living. Historically

hours of work have been reduced as factory processes have been mechanized and also as fatigue has come to be recognized as detrimental to the worker's health, efficiency, and productivity. The development of good industrial health and safety practices provides a basis for protecting the worker from unsafe working conditions and from processes that endanger health.

95. *Methods of Establishing Standards*

Labor standards are developed through many channels—employers, unions, and governmental and private agencies. The enactment in many States of laws establishing adequate standards governing wages, hours, and working conditions for women has stimulated the adoption by employers of better standards for men also.

In matters such as training, seniority, and promotion, women workers are often in a particularly vulnerable situation which requires special attention. Women may be hired for beginning jobs on an equal basis with men but may not get equal consideration for promotion. Frequently they do not have the same training opportunities and are not given a chance at better jobs. The opportunity to secure an equal rate of pay or equal seniority in their jobs is sometimes lacking.

An outline follows of basic recommended standards to safeguard health and efficiency of women employees. These standards apply mainly to manufacturing, trade and service occupations, and office work. They do not attempt to deal with details but indicate the direction in which good standards should move. Federal labor laws and social security provisions relate to such matters as labor-management relations, wage and hour standards, social security, employment security, job training, education, and workmen's compensation. They affect both men and women workers and therefore lie for the most part outside the scope of this chapter.

Wages and Hours

96. *Wage Standards*

Adequate basic wages serve to promote the Nation's welfare by maintaining a secure and healthful level of living for individual workers and by sustaining the purchasing power of workers as a whole. To aid in accomplishing this objective, many States have provided by law for a floor to wages. Since earnings determine standards of living, workers should be assured a minimum wage adequate to meet

the cost of living. The adequacy of the wage depends not only on the amount of the rate paid, but also on the opportunity for regular employment throughout the year.

Wage standards should include:

a. A minimum wage, applicable to both men and women, adequate to maintain the health and well-being of the worker with overtime pay after 40 hours a week at not less than 1½ times the worker's regular rate.

b. The principle of equal pay for comparable work—wage rate based on the job and not on the sex of the worker.

c. No deduction from wages for protective clothing, other safety equipment, or uniforms; provision and maintenance of these items by the employer as part of the cost of production.

d. Wages paid regularly and in full, on a weekly or semimonthly basis, and on a fixed day; assistance by the appropriate government agency in collection of unpaid wages.

97. *Hours Standards*

Standards that provide workers with adequate rest for health and welfare, and time for other responsibilities and for leisure, are important to both workers and employers. Experience has shown that maximum production can be maintained over a prolonged period only under working conditions that sustain the health and efficiency of the workers and strengthen their morale. The 5-day, 40-hour workweek is an accepted practice in many industries.

Hours standards should include:

a. A workday of 8 hours and a workweek of 40 hours, with worktime over 40 hours a week or 8 hours a day to be paid at not less than 1½ times the worker's regular rate.

b. At least 1 day of rest in 7, preferably 2 consecutive days in 7.

c. Meal periods of at least 30 minutes; no work period of more than 5 hours without a break for meal and rest.

d. A rest period of at least 10 minutes in the middle of each half-day work period, to be allowed in addition to the lunch period and without lengthening the workday.

e. Nightwork, except in continuous-process industries and essential services, kept to a minimum; observance of the International Labor Organization standard; that is, a guarantee of an uninterrupted rest period of 11 consecutive hours, including a rest period of at least 7 consecutive hours between 10 p.m. and 7 a.m.

Health and Safety

Standards adequate to insure healthful and safe working conditions are essential in all workplaces. The standards should include:

98. *Health Standards*

a. Vacation with pay after 6 months on the job; longer vacation after longer service.

b. Time off with pay on legal holidays.

c. Sick leave and maternity leave without loss of job or seniority rights; maternity leave to cover a minimum of 6 weeks before and 2 months after confinement, with extension of either period on advice of the worker's physician. Paid maternity leave or comparable insurance benefits should be provided for women workers.

d. Working environment with adequate ventilation, lighting, and heating to preserve health and reduce strain and fatigue.

e. Washrooms, toilets, restrooms, dressing rooms, and drinking water convenient and available to all workers; lunchrooms with nourishing food at reasonable prices when the size of the plant makes it practicable; facilities to conform to high standards of health and sanitation.

f. Medical services in the plant commensurate with needs of the workers.

g. A program to discover and protect against occupational hazards arising from the use of dangerous substances or processes.

h. Provision of mechanical aids for lifting weights; elimination of undue physical strain for workers.

i. Suitable seats in adequate numbers; workers free to use them when not actively engaged in performance of duties that require a standing position, or at all times when nature of job permits.

99. *Safety Standards*

a. Equipment and machinery in good working condition, with adequate guards against injury.

b. Safety equipment and clothing as needed—such as goggles, safety shoes, protective gloves—maintained in good condition.

c. Safe and uncrowded workspace; stairways, floors, halls, rooms, and passageways kept in good condition and adequately lighted.

d. A continuing safety program and training in safety on the job for all workers.

Other Standards

100. Industrial Homework

Industrial homework should be limited by law to handicapped persons who are unable to leave home for regular employment. For such workers it should be controlled by licensing provisions and related standards.

7

STATE LABOR LAWS FOR WOMEN

as of September 1, 1965

During a century of development, the field of labor legislation for women has seen a tremendous increase in the number of laws and a notable improvement in the standards established. Today each of the 50 States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico have laws relating to the employment of women. The principal subjects of regulation are: (1) minimum wage; (2) equal pay; (3) hours of work, including maximum daily and weekly hours, day of rest, and meal and rest periods; (4) industrial homework; (5) employment before and after childbirth; (6) occupational limitations; and (7) other standards, such as seating provisions and weightlifting limitations. Legislation in one or more of these fields has been enacted in all of the States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico, but the standards established vary widely.

In some jurisdictions different standards apply to different occupations or industries. Only the highest standards established for the principal subjects of regulation, in effect September 1, 1965, are shown in this summary. Laws relating to minors are mentioned only if they apply also to women.

Minimum Wage

A total of 34 States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico have minimum wage laws with minimum wage rates currently in effect. These laws apply to men as well as women in 22 States and Puerto Rico. In 12 States and the District of Columbia minimum wage laws apply only to women or to women and minors. An additional 3 States have minimum wage laws, applicable to females and/or minors, which are not in operation.

In general these laws are applicable to all industries and occupations except domestic service and agriculture, which are specifically

exempt in most States.[1] Since the Federal Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938, as amended, establishes a minimum hourly rate for both men and women engaged in or producing goods for interstate commerce and for employees of some retail firms and other specified establishments, the benefits of State minimum wage legislation apply chiefly to workers in local trade and service industries.

101. Historical Record

The history of minimum wage legislation began in 1912 with the passage of a minimum wage law in Massachusetts. At that time minimum wage legislation was designed for the protection of women and minors and did much to raise their extremely low wages in manufacturing (now covered by the FFLSA) and in trade and service industries. Between 1912 and 1923, laws were enacted in 15 States,[2] the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico.

Legislative progress was interrupted by the 1923 decision of the U.S. Supreme Court declaring the District of Columbia law unconstitutional, and no new minimum wage laws were passed during the next 10 years.

The depression years of the 1930's brought a revival of interest in minimum wage legislation, and 13 additional States and Alaska enacted laws.

In 1937 the U.S. Supreme Court upheld the constitutionality of the minimum wage law in the State of Washington, expressly reversing its prior decision on the District of Columbia minimum wage law.

In 1941 Hawaii enacted a minimum wage law, bringing to 30 the number of jurisdictions with such legislation.

From 1941 through 1954 no State enacted a minimum wage law. However, there was a considerable amount of legislative activity in the States which already had minimum wage legislation on their statute books. In some States the laws were amended to extend coverage to men; in others, to establish or increase a statutory rate; in still others, to strengthen the procedural provisions.

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[1] Minimum wage laws in only 9 States—California, Colorado, Kansas, Michigan, North Dakota, Oregon, Utah, Washington, and Wisconsin—do not specifically exempt from coverage employment in both domestic service and agriculture or labor on a farm. The District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, and Hawaii exempt domestic service but not agriculture, except that Hawaii exempts agricultural workers in any workweek in which the employer has fewer than 20 employees. Minimum wage rates for agricultural employment have been set by wage orders for women and minors in California and Wisconsin, for minors in Oregon, and for men and women in Puerto Rico. A Wisconsin wage order sets minimum wage rates for women and minors in domestic service.

[2] One of these laws was repealed in 1919 (Nebraska); another, in 1921 (Texas).

In the period 1955–63 the following actions occurred:

5 States—Idaho, New Mexico, North Carolina, Vermont, and Wyoming—enacted minimum wage laws for the first time.

5 States—Maine, New York, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, and Washington—amended their laws to establish a statutory rate, and three of these amendments—in Maine, Pennsylvania, and Washington—extended coverage to men also.

13 States—Alaska, Connecticut, Hawaii, Idaho, Masachusetts, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Mexico, New York, North Carolina, Rhode Island, Vermont, and Washington—amended existing laws to raise statutory rates.

1 State—Massachusetts—amended the minimum wage law to require the payment of not less than 1½ times the employee's regular rate for hours worked in excess of 40 a week, but a number of occupations and industries are exempted from the overtime provision.

Other amendments in a number of States affected coverage of the law, clarified specific provisions, or otherwise strengthened the minimum wage laws.

In 1964 and up to September 1965:

4 States—Delaware, Indiana, Maryland, and Michigan—enacted minimum wage laws for the first time.

1 State—Oklahoma—with a wage board law enacted a statutory rate law applicable to men and women.

2 States—Nevada and North Dakota—amended their laws to extend coverage to men.

8 States—Maine, Massachusetts, Nevada, New Mexico, North Carolina, South Dakota, Vermont, and Wyoming—amended their laws to increase the statutory rate.

102. *Roster of Minimum Wage States*

The 39 jurisdictions with minimum wage legislation are:

Alaska	Kentucky	North Dakota
Arizona	*Louisiana	Ohio
Arkansas	Maine	Oklahoma
California	Maryland	Oregon
Colorado	Massachusetts	Pennsylvania
Connecticut	Michigan	Puerto Rico
Delaware	Minnesota	Rhode Island
District of Columbia	Nevada	South Dakota
Hawaii	New Hampshire	Utah
Idaho	New Jersey	Vermont
*Illinois	New Mexico	Washington
Indiana	New York	Wisconsin
*Kansas	North Carolina	Wyoming

*Law not in operation; no minimum wage rates in effect.

Eleven States and Puerto Rico have statutory rates and also provide for the establishment of occupation or industry rates based on recommendations of wage boards. Fourteen States (including 3 with no minimum wages rates currently in effect) and the District of Columbia have no fixed rate in the law but provide for minimum rates to be established on an occupation or industry basis by wage board action. Twelve States have statutory minimum wages rates only; that is, the rate is set by the legislature.

The following list shows for the 39 jurisdictions the type of law and employees covered.

a. Statutory rate and wage board law for—

Men, women, and minors

Connecticut
Delaware
Massachusetts
New Hampshire
New York
Pennsylvania
Puerto Rico
Rhode Island
Vermont
Washington

Men and women

Indiana (18 years and over)
Michigan (18 to 65 years)

b. Wage board law only for—

Men, women, and minors

North Dakota

Women and minors

Arizona
California
Colorado
District of Columbia
*Illinois
*Kansas
Kentucky
Minnesota
New Jersey
Ohio
Oregon
Utah
Wisconsin

Females

*Louisiana

c. Statutory rate law only for—

Men, women, and minors

Alaska
Hawaii
Idaho
Maine
Maryland
Nevada
New Mexico
North Carolina (16 to 65 years)

Men and women

Oklahoma (18 to 65 years)
Wyoming (18 years and over)

Females

Arkansas
South Dakota

*Law not in operation; no minimum wage rates in effect.

Equal Pay

Twenty-five States have equal pay laws applicable to private employment which prohibit discrimination in rate of pay because of sex. They establish the principle of payment of a wage rate based on the job and not on the sex of the worker. Five States with no equal pay laws have fair employment practices laws that prohibit discrimination in rate of pay or compensation based on sex.

103. Historical Record

Public attention was first sharply focused on equal pay for women during World War I when large numbers of women were employed in war industries on the same jobs as men, and the National War Labor Board enforced the policy of "no wage discrimination against women on the grounds of sex." In 1919, 2 States—Michigan and Montana—enacted equal pay legislation. For nearly 25 years these were the only States with equal pay laws on their statute books.

Great progress in the equal pay field was made during World War II when large numbers of women entered the labor force, many of them in jobs previously held by men. Government agencies, employers, unions, organizations, and the general public were concerned with the removal of wage differentials as a means of furthering the war effort.

During the period 1943–45 equal pay laws were enacted in 4 States—Illinois, Massachusetts, New York, and Washington.

In the next 4 years 6 States—California, Connecticut, Maine, New Hampshire, Pennsylvania, and Rhode Island—and Alaska passed equal pay laws.

New Jersey enacted its equal pay law in 1952. Arkansas, Colorado, and Oregon, by passing such legislation in 1955, increased the number of equal pay laws to 17.

In 1957 California amended its equal pay law to strengthen existing legislation, and Nebraska adopted a resolution endorsing the policy of equal pay for equal work without discrimination as to sex and urging the adoption of this policy by all employers in the State. Hawaii, Ohio, and Wyoming passed equal pay laws in 1959.

In 1961 Wisconsin amended its fair employment practices law to prohibit discrimination because of sex and to provide that a differential in pay between employees, when based in good faith on any factor other than sex, is not prohibited.

In 1962 Arizona became the 21st State with an equal pay law, and Michigan amended its law to extend coverage to any employer of labor

employing both males and females. (Previously only manufacture or production of any article was covered by the Michigan law.)

During 1963 Missouri enacted an equal pay law, and Vermont passed a fair labor practices law which also prohibits discrimination in rates of pay based on sex.

(Also in 1963 the Federal Equal Pay Act was passed as an amendment to the Fair Labor Standards Act. In general the law became effective June 11, 1964.)

In 1965 3 States—North Dakota, Oklahoma, and West Virginia—enacted equal pay laws; Maryland, Nebraska, and Utah passed fair employment practices laws that include a prohibition of discrimination in compensation based on sex. Amendments in 4 States—California, Maine, New York, and Rhode Island—strengthened existing equal pay laws.

104. Roster of Equal Pay States [3]

The 25 States with equal pay laws are:

Alaska	Massachusetts	Oklahoma
Arizona	Michigan	Oregon
Arkansas	Missouri	Pennsylvania
California	Montana	Rhode Island
Colorado	New Hampshire	Washington
Connecticut	New Jersey	West Virginia
Hawaii	New York	Wyoming
Illinois	North Dakota	
Maine	Ohio	

Equal pay laws in 3 States—Colorado, Montana, and North Dakota—are applicable to public as well as private enterprise. In 21 States the laws apply to most types of private employment; in general those specifying exemptions exclude agricultural labor and domestic service. The Illinois law applies only to manufacturing.

Hours of Work

The first enforceable law that regulated the hours of employment of women became effective in Massachusetts in 1879. Today 46 States,[4] the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico have established standards governing at least one aspect of women's hours of employment; that

[3] Fair employment practices laws in 5 States with no equal pay laws—Maryland, Nebraska, Utah, Vermont, and Wisconsin—prohibit discrimination in rate of pay or compensation based on sex.

[4] While this handbook was in press, Delaware repealed its labor laws for women, regulating maximum hours, day of rest, meal period, nightwork, and seating facilities, effective December 14, 1965. All subsequent summaries of these provisions therefore should exclude Delaware.

is, maximum daily or weekly hours, day of rest, meal and rest periods, and nightwork. Some of these standards have been established by statute; others, by minimum wage or industrial welfare orders.

105. Maximum Daily and Weekly Hours [5]

Forty-three States and the District of Columbia regulate the number of daily and/or weekly hours of employment for women in one or more industries. These limitations have been established either by statute or by orders. Seven States—Alabama, Alaska, Florida, Hawaii, Indiana, Iowa, and West Virginia—and Puerto Rico do not have such laws; but laws of Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico require the payment of premium rates for time worked over hours specified.

Twenty-five States and the District of Columbia have set maximum hours of 8 a day, 48 or less a week, or both.

Eight States have a maximum 9-hour day and 50- or 54-hour week. (Michigan has an average 9-hour day, maximum 10-hour.)

Minnesota has no daily hour limitation in its statute; weekly hours are limited to 54.

Nine States have a maximum of 10 hours a day and from 50 to 60 hours a week.

The highest standard (the fewest maximum hours) applicable to one or more industries is shown here for each of the 43 States and the District of Columbia. Standards for Georgia, Montana, and South Carolina are applicable to both men and women.

	Maximum hours	
	Daily	Weekly
Arizona	8	48
Arkansas	8	(1)
California	8	48
Colorado	8	48
Connecticut	8	48
Delaware	10	55
District of Columbia	8	48
Georgia	10	60
Idaho [3]	8	48
Illinois	8	48
Kansas	8	48
Kentucky	10	60
Louisiana	8	48
Maine	9	50
Maryland	10	60
Massachusetts	9	48
Michigan	9	54
Minnesota	—	54
Mississippi	10	60
Missouri	9	54
Montana	8	48
Nebraska	9	54
Nevada	8	48
New Hampshire	10	48
New Jersey	10	54
New Mexico	8	48
New York	8	48
North Carolina	9	48
North Dakota	8½	48
Ohio	8	48
Oklahoma	9	54
Oregon	8	44
Pennsylvania	10	48
Rhode Island	9	48
South Carolina	10	55
South Dakota	10	54
Tennessee	10	50
Texas	9	54
Utah	8	48
Vermont	9	50

See footnotes at end of table.

[5] See footnote 4, p. 238.

	Maximum hours	
	Daily	Weekly
Virginia	9	48
Washington	8	(3)
Wisconsin	9	50
Wyoming 4	8	48

1 Day-of-rest law provides, in effect, for 48-hour workweek. Nine hours a day permitted, if time worked over 8 hours a day is paid for at 1½ times the employee's regular rate.

2 Law amended in 1963 to provide that females may not be employed over 8 hours a day or 48 hours a week without the payment of 1½ times the rate for hours worked in excess of 8 a day or 48 a week.

3 Day-of-rest law provides, in effect, for 48-hour workweek.

4 A 1959 amendment to the hour law permits the employment of females over 8 hours a day, provided time and one-half is paid for each hour worked over 8 a day in a 12-hour period.

Virtually all State hour laws cover manufacturing; most of them apply to a variety of other industries as well. Standards are usually the same for manufacturing and nonmanufacturing. However, in 4 States the highest standards established for daily and weekly hours apply to nonmanufacturing. For manufacturing establishments the maximum daily and weekly hours in these 4 States are:

	Daily	Weekly
Connecticut	9	48
Kansas	9	49½
Montana	8	----
Ohio	9	48

106. Day of Rest [6]

Twenty-three States and the District of Columbia have established a maximum 6-day workweek for women employed in some or all industries; in 6 of these States this standard is applicable to both men and women. Jurisdictions providing for a 6-day maximum workweek are:

Arizona
Arkansas
California (men and women)
Colorado
Connecticut [1]
Delaware
District of Columbia
Illinois (men and women)
Kansas
Louisiana
Massachusetts (men and women)
Nevada
New Hampshire (men and women)
New Jersey
New York (men and women)
North Carolina
North Dakota
Ohio
Oregon
Pennsylvania
South Carolina
Utah
Washington
Wisconsin (men and women)

1 Standard shown is applicable to females; another statute prohibits Sunday employment of all employees in commercial occupations or work in any industrial process, with specified exceptions. (Employees covered by statute who are employed on Sunday must be relieved of duty for one of the following 6 days.)

6 See footnote 4, p. 238.

Of the 28 jurisdictions with no laws limiting the workweek to 6 days, 8 States have laws applicable to both men and women that prohibit employment on Sunday with specified exceptions:

Alabama
Florida
Maryland
Minnesota
Mississippi
Missouri
Virginia
West Virginia

Eight other States—Georgia, Maine, Michigan, New Mexico, Oklahoma, Tennessee, Texas, and Vermont—have Sunday "blue laws" that prohibit the performance of work by an individual. These States, since their laws do not regulate employment, are not listed with those having day-of-rest laws.

In Montana, Sunday is a legal holiday by law. Three additional jurisdictions—Rhode Island, Kentucky, and Puerto Rico—have laws which require the payment of overtime rates to both men and women for work on the seventh day or on Sunday, thus, in effect, encouraging a 6-day workweek. The Rhode Island statute, under the jurisdiction of the State Department of Labor, prohibits employment on Sundays and holidays, but allows work of necessity and charity to be performed on such days by special permit, provided 1½ times the worker's regular rate is paid. The Kentucky law requires the payment of time and one-half the worker's regular rate for work on the seventh consecutive day for persons working at least 40 hours a week. Puerto Rico provides for a day of rest but permits work on such day at double the employee's regular rate.

107. *Meal Period* [7]

Half of the States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico provide that meal periods, varying from one-third of an hour to 1 hour in duration, must be allowed women employed in some or all industries; in 4 States these provisions apply to men as well as women. The length of the meal period is provided for by statute, orders, or regulations in 27 jurisdictions:

Arkansas
California
Colorado
Delaware
District of Columbia
Indiana (men and women)
Kansas
Louisiana
Maine
Maryland
Massachusetts
Nebraska (men and women)
Nevada
New Jersey (men and women)
New Mexico
New York (men and women)
North Carolina
North Dakota
Ohio
Oregon
Pennsylvania
Puerto Rico
Rhode Island
Utah
Washington
West Virginia
Wisconsin

[7] See footnote 4, p. 238.

Combining rest period and meal period provisions, Kentucky requires that before and after the regularly scheduled lunch period (duration not specified) rest periods shall be granted females; and in Wyoming females employed in specified establishments who are required to be on their feet continuously must have two paid rest periods, one before and one after the lunch hour.

108. Rest Period

Twelve States and Puerto Rico[8] have provided for specific rest periods (as distinct from a meal period) for women workers, 6 by statute and 7 by wage order. The statutes in Alaska, Kentucky, Nevada, and Wyoming cover a variety of industries (in Alaska and Wyoming, applicable to women standing continuously); laws in New York and Pennsylvania apply to elevator operators not provided with seating facilities. Rest periods in one or more industries are provided by wage orders in Arizona, California, Colorado, Oregon, Puerto Rico, Utah, and Washington. Most of the provisions are for a 10-minute rest period within each half day of work.

In addition, in Arkansas manufacturing establishments operating on a 24-hour schedule may, when necessary, be exempt from the meal period provision if females are granted 10 minutes for each of two paid rest periods and provision is made for them to eat at their work; and the North Dakota Manufacturing Order prohibits the employment of women for more than 2 hours without a rest period (duration not specified).

109. Nightwork[9]

In 21 States and Puerto Rico nightwork for adult women is prohibited and/or regulated in certain industries or occupations.

Eleven States and Puerto Rico prohibit nightwork for adult women in certain occupations or industries or under specified conditions:

Connecticut	New Jersey	Puerto Rico
Kansas	New York	South Carolina
Massachusetts	North Dakota	Washington
Nebraska (except by permit)	Ohio	Wisconsin

In North Dakota and Washington the prohibition applies only to elevator operators; in Ohio, only to taxicab drivers.

In 10 other States, as well as in several of the States and Puerto Rico which prohibit nightwork in specified industries or occupations,

[8] Rest period provision in Puerto Rico applies also to men.
[9] See footnote 4, p. 238.

the employment of adult women at night is regulated either by maximum hour provisions or by specified standards of working conditions:

California	New Hampshire	Rhode Island
Delaware	New Mexico	Utah
Illinois	Oregon	
Maryland	Pennsylvania	

Arizona and the District of Columbia prohibit night messenger service by females under 21; the Arizona law is also applicable to males under 21.

Other Labor Legislation

110. Industrial Homework

Nineteen States and Puerto Rico have industrial homework laws or regulations:

California	Michigan	Puerto Rico
Connecticut	Missouri	Rhode Island
Hawaii	New Jersey	Tennessee
Illinois	New York	Texas
Indiana	Ohio	West Virginia
Maryland	Oregon	Wisconsin
Massachusetts	Pennsylvania	

These regulations apply to all persons, except in Oregon, where the provisions apply to women and minors only.

In addition, the Alaska and Washington wage and hour acts authorize issuance of rules and regulations restricting or prohibiting industrial homework where necessary to safeguard minimum wage rates prescribed in the acts.

111. Employment Before and After Childbirth

Six States and Puerto Rico prohibit the employment of women in one or more industries or occupations immediately before and/or after childbirth. These standards are established by statute or by minimum wage or welfare orders. Women may not be employed in—

Connecticut	4 weeks before and 4 weeks after childbirth
Massachusetts	4 weeks before and 4 weeks after childbirth
Missouri	3 weeks before and 3 weeks after childbirth
New York	4 weeks after childbirth
Puerto Rico	4 weeks before and 4 weeks after childbirth
Vermont	2 weeks before and 4 weeks after childbirth
Washington [1]	4 months before and 6 weeks after childbirth

[1] Standard established by minimum wage orders. Some orders provide that a special permit may be granted for continued employment upon employer's request and with doctor's certificate.

In addition to prohibiting employment, Puerto Rico requires the employer to pay the working mother one-half of her regular wage or salary during an 8-week period and provides for job security during the required absence.

Rhode Island's Temporary Disability Insurance Act provides that women workers covered by the act who are unemployed because of sickness resulting from pregnancy are entitled to cash benefits for maternity leave for a 14-week period beginning the sixth week prior to the week of expected childbirth, or the week childbirth occurs if it is more than 6 weeks prior to the expected birth.

In New Jersey the Temporary Disability Benefits Act provides that women workers to whom the act applies are entitled to cash payments for disability existing during the 4 weeks before and 4 weeks following childbirth.

112. Occupational Limitations

Twenty-six States have laws or regulations that prohibit the employment of adult women in specified occupations or industries or under certain working conditions which are considered hazardous or injurious to health and safety. In the majority (17) the prohibition applies to women's employment in or about mines. Clerical or similar work is excepted from the prohibition in approximately half of these States. Ten States prohibit women from mixing, selling, or dispensing alcoholic beverages for on-premises consumption, and 1 State—Georgia—prohibits their employment in retail liquor stores. (In addition, a Florida statute authorizes the city of Tampa to prohibit females from soliciting customers to buy alcoholic beverages.)

The following States have occupational limitations applicable to—

Mines		*Establishments serving alcoholic beverages*
Alabama	Ohio	Alaska
Arizona	Oklahoma	California
Arkansas	Pennsylvania	Connecticut
Colorado	Utah	Illinois[1]
Illinois	Virginia	Indiana
Indiana	Washington	Kentucky
Maryland	Wisconsin	Ohio
Missouri	Wyoming	Pennsylvania
New York		Rhode Island
		Wyoming

[1] Illinois State law empowers city and county governments to prohibit by general ordinance or resolution.

Eleven States prohibit the employment of women in other places or occupations or under certain conditions:

Arizona—In occupations requiring constant standing.
Colorado—Working around coke ovens.
Massachusetts—Working on cores over 2 cubic feet or 60 pounds.
Michigan—Handling harmful substances; in foundries, except with approval of the Department of Labor; operating polishing wheels, belts.
Minnesota—Placing cores in or out of ovens; cleaning moving machinery.
Missouri—Cleaning or working between moving machinery.
New York—Coremaking, or in connection with coremaking, in a room in which the oven is in operation.
Ohio—As crossing watchman, section hand, express driver, metal molder, bellhop, gas- or electric-meter reader; in shoeshining parlors, bowling alleys as pinsetters, poolrooms; in delivery service on motor-propelled vehicles of over 1-ton capacity; in operating freight or baggage elevators if doors are not automatically or semiautomatically controlled; in baggage and freight handling; by means of handtrucks, trucking and handling heavy materials of any kind; operating emery wheels, belts; in blast furnace and smelter.
Pennsylvania—In dangerous or injurious occupations.
Washington—As bellhop.
Wisconsin—In dangerous or injurious occupations.

The majority of States with occupational limitations for adult women also have prohibitory legislation for persons under 21 years. In addition, 10 States have occupational limitations for persons under 21 only. Most of these limitations apply to the serving of liquor and to the driving of taxicabs, schoolbuses, or public vehicles; others prohibit the employment of females under 21 years in jobs demanding constant standing or as messengers, bellhops, or caddies.

113. Seating [10] and Weightlifting

A number of jurisdictions, through statute, minimum wage orders, and other regulations, have established employment standards for women relating to plant facilities such as seats, lunch rooms, dressing and rest rooms, and toilet rooms, and to weightlifting. Only the seating and weightlifting provisions are included in this summary.

Seating.—Forty-five States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico have seating laws; all but 1—the Florida law—apply exclusively to women. Hawaii, Illinois, Maryland, Mississippi, and North Dakota have no seating laws.

Weightlifting.—Twelve States have statutes, rules, regulations, or wage orders which specify the maximum weight women employees are permitted to lift, carry, or lift and carry. Following are the

[10] See footnote 4, p. 238.

highest standards established for weightlifting and carrying in the 12 States:

Any occupation: 15 pounds in Utah; 25 in Alaska and Ohio; 30 in Georgia; 35 in Michigan.

Foundries and core rooms: 25 pounds in Maryland, Massachusetts, Minnesota, and New York.

Specified occupations or industries (by wage order): 25 pounds in California and Oregon; 35 pounds and "excessive weights" in Washington.

8

POLITICAL AND CIVIL STATUS OF WOMEN

as of September 1, 1965

New Trends

Beginning in the mid-19th century the various States enacted the Married Women's Property Acts which were the first legal steps toward releasing a married woman's property and property rights from her husband's control. This started a trend which has continued over the years to equalize married women's rights with those of married men in the enjoyment and disposition of property. The adoption of the 19th amendment to the Constitution, which gave both married and single women the right to vote, marked the beginning of the political emancipation of women and established the basis for them to participate fully in the political life of the country. Similarly, the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964,[1] which in its employment title (title VII) includes a ban on discrimination based on sex, may mark a new era in the economic life of women, for it requires equal treatment in employment.

Title VII, which bans all types of discrimination in private employment, became effective July 2, 1965, and is administered by an Equal Employment Opportunity Commission. In general, the title covers employers and unions engaged in industries affecting interstate commerce and also employment agencies. During the first effective year of the title, an employer with at least 100 employees or a union with at least 100 members is covered. This required number decreases by 25 each year until during the fourth effective year and thereafter the required number is 25.

Unlawful employment practices include:

- For an *employer* to fail or refuse to hire, to discharge, or to otherwise discriminate because of race, color, religion, sex, or national origin, with respect to compensation, terms, conditions or privileges

[1] Public Law 88-352, July 2, 1964.

of employment; or to limit, segregate or classify his employees in any way which deprives them of employment opportunities.

- For a *union* to exclude or expel from membership, limit, segregate or classify, fail or refuse to refer for employment on any of the prohibited grounds or to cause or attempt to cause an employer to discriminate.

- For an *employment agency* to fail or refuse to refer for employment on any of the prohibited grounds.

- For *any of the above* to print, publish, or cause to be printed advertisements regarding employment indicating any preference, classification, or discrimination on any of the prohibited grounds.

- For an *employer*, *labor union*, or *joint labor-management committee* to discriminate on any of the prohibited grounds in apprenticeship or other training or retraining, including on-the-job training programs.

The exception to the above prohibitions is when sex is a bona fide occupational qualification reasonably necessary to the normal operation of the particular business.

The Federal Government has been working to achieve equal opportunities for women in Federal employment. In private employment the recent Civil Rights Act will chart a new course in labor legislation designed to prohibit discrimination. Prior to passage of the Federal act only 2 States—Wisconsin and Hawaii—had bans against discrimination in private employment based on sex. (Washington State, by Executive order dated June 13, 1963, banned such discrimination in public employment; and Colorado, also in 1963, had amended its fair employment practices (FEP) law to ban discrimination based on sex in apprenticeship, vocational training, and on-the-job training courses.)

Title VII encourages State action in this area since it requires that a State or local remedy for an alleged unlawful employment practice be pursued for a specified period before the Commission can take action; permits utilization of State agencies by the Commission; and allows the Commission to cede its administrative authority to a State or local agency that effectively administers its own antidiscrimination law.

In 1965, 5 States—Arizona, Maryland, Nebraska, Utah, and Wyoming—enacted new FEP acts which include a ban on discrimination

because of sex and the District of Columbia adopted a police regulation banning such discrimination; all of these laws except that of Maryland appear to have broad and comprehensive provisions similar to those in the Federal law. In addition, Massachusetts, Missouri, and New York amended their FEP laws to include a ban on discrimination because of sex along the lines of the Federal law. Of the 33 mandatory FEP laws, 11 prohibit sex discrimination.

In other areas activities at both the State and Federal levels continue to be directed toward the removal of discriminations in laws affecting the civil and political status of women. The report of the President's Commission on the Status of Women dated October 11, 1963, recommended basic principles for further action in improving the legal status of women. This stimulated interest at the State level in the creation of Governors' Commissions on the Status of Women. As of September 1, 1965, 45 [2] such Commissions had been created, 17 of which had made commission reports to the respective Governors recommending significant steps to be taken to improve State laws. In general these reports on civil and political status follow guidelines set forth in the report of the President's Commission.

Political Status

114. Citizenship

Citizenship in the United States is acquired in the same way by men and women; that is, by birth within the domain, by birth abroad of a parent who is a citizen, or by naturalization. Mothers as well as fathers confer citizenship on their minor children.

A married woman's citizenship does not automatically follow that of her husband. An alien wife may become a citizen whether or not her alien husband desires or qualifies for that privilege. When a woman citizen marries an alien, she retains her citizenship until she renounces it by declaring allegiance to another government.

115. Voting and Public Office

Federal.—Women and men have equal rights of suffrage in the election of Federal Government officials and on proposals for change in the Federal Constitution.

[2] Alabama, Arizona, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Hawaii, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Utah, Vermont, Virginia, Washington, West Virginia, Wisconsin, and Wyoming.

Any woman who meets the qualifications for official positions in the Federal Government is eligible for election or appointment to posts in the executive and legislative branches or for appointment to the judiciary.

State.—Women and men have equal rights of suffrage in the election of State and local officials and in the determination of public issues within the State.

Any woman who meets the qualifications for elected officials of State and local governments is eligible for election to these positions.

Civil service positions.—Appointive positions in both Federal and State civil service are open generally to women who qualify. On June 4, 1962, the U.S. Attorney General reversed a 1934 interpretation of an 1870 Federal hiring statute which permitted appointing officials, at their discretion, to specify sex in filling appointments in the Federal civil service. This was followed by a Presidential directive on July 23, 1962, requiring agency heads to fill Federal positions without reference to sex of the applicant where experience and physical requirements are met. On July 31, 1962, the U.S. Civil Service Commission issued the necessary rules and regulations to implement this policy. Some States by statute specify the sex of appointees for certain positions, such as superintendents, wardens, matrons, or attendants in institutions. In the District of Columbia three of the nine members of the Board of Education, in which control of the public schools is vested, must be women.

Courts—jury service.—The Civil Rights Act of 1957[3] had the effect of removing the disqualification of women for service on Federal juries in all States. Any citizen 21 years old who has resided in the judicial district for a year is now qualified to serve on a grand or petit Federal jury, provided he or she has not been convicted of a crime, is not illiterate, and does not suffer from a physical or mental infirmity which would impair such service. Formerly women were not permitted to serve on Federal juries in 3 States—Alabama, Mississippi, and South Carolina—where they are still barred from service on State juries. Women are eligible by law to serve on State juries in the other 47 States and the District of Columbia.

Twenty-three States[4] and 19 of the 23 counties in Maryland provide the same qualifications for, and disqualifications and exemptions

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[3] Public Law 85–315, September 9, 1957, sec. 152, amending 28 U.S.C. 1861.

[4] Alaska, Arizona, California, Colorado, Delaware, Hawaii, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Maine, Michigan, Montana, New Jersey, New Mexico, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, South Dakota, Vermont, West Virginia, Wisconsin.

from, jury service for women as for men. In 24 States and the District of Columbia women may claim exemptions not available to men. Of these, 12 States,[5] the District of Columbia, and the remaining 4 counties in Maryland permit a woman to be excused solely on the basis of her sex. An additional 8 States [6] permit women to claim exemption on the basis of child care or family responsibilities. Nebraska and Rhode Island further provide that women shall be included for jury service only when courthouse facilities permit. Florida, Louisiana, and New Hampshire permit women to serve only if they first register for jury service.

116. Domicile

A married woman's domicile (legal residence; not necessarily actual residence) generally depends on that of her husband. The rule is, however, that when the interests of husband and wife are hostile and result in a separation of the parties, an aggrieved wife may establish a separate domicile. In addition, an increasing number of jurisdictions [7] are permitting a wife to establish a separate domicile when the marital unity has been breached and the parties are living separately by mutual consent or acquiescence. In such cases separate existence, interest, and rights are recognized.

There nevertheless remains a problem of domicile for a woman whose marriage is still intact but who for some good and valid reason has a residence separate from her husband. In recognition of this, some States permit a married woman to have a separate domicile for certain specified purposes. At least 16 States [8] permit a married woman to establish a separate domicile for voting; 5 States [9] permit a separate domicile for jury service; 6 States [10] permit a separate domicile for eligibility to public office; and 5 States [11] recognize a separate domicile for purposes of probate.

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[5] Arkansas, Georgia, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nevada, New York, North Dakota, Rhode Island, Tennessee, Virginia, Washington.

[6] Connecticut, Massachusetts, Nebraska, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Texas, Utah, Wyoming.

[7] Arizona, Arkansas, Connecticut, Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, Georgia, Hawaii, Illinois, Indiana, Kentucky, Missouri, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Oregon, South Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia, Washington, West Virginia.

[8] Arizona, California, Connecticut, Florida, Kentucky, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, Nevada, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Vermont, Virginia, Wisconsin.

[9] Maine, Nevada, New Jersey, New York, Wisconsin.

[10] Maine, Michigan, Nevada, New Jersey, New York, Wisconsin.

[11] Florida, Nevada, New Jersey, New York, Washington.

Civil Status—Family Relations

117. Marriage

The laws of the various States governing marriage requirements generally do not differentiate between the sexes, except in establishing minimum ages. Most States set lower minimums for women than for men. When the consent of the parents is not required, the minimum age for women is 18 years in 34 States and the District of Columbia; 19, 20, or 21 in the remaining jurisdictions. With the consent of the parents, the minimum for girls is 16 in 38 States and the District of Columbia, 15 in 6 States,[12] and 14 in 4 States.[13] In Washington the minimum age is 17 years. In New Hampshire a girl who marries below the age of 18 must have both the consent of her parents and that of the court. All but 4 States [14] and the District of Columbia require a premarital health examination for both applicants for a marriage license. In those 5 jurisdictions the health examination is not required for either applicant.

118. Divorce

All States recognize divorce on at least one ground. Generally grounds for divorce are the same for husband and wife, although some States recognize nonsupport as a ground for granting the wife a decree, and at least 14 States permit a man to seek a divorce on the basis of his wife's pregnancy by another man at the time of their marriage. The most usual grounds for divorce are adultery, desertion, cruelty, alcoholism, impotency, felony conviction, insanity, and neglect to provide. Other grounds which appear frequently are drug addiction, imprisonment, and commission of an infamous crime.

Forty-eight States and the District of Columbia have statutes which provide that when divorce is granted permanent alimony may be awarded to the wife in the discretion of the court. (In North Carolina alimony is limited to divorce from bed and board.) Pennsylvania and Texas make no general provision for alimony on final decree, although in Pennsylvania the court is empowered to decree alimony for the support of either an insane wife or an insane husband. In addition to Pennsylvania, at least 7 States [15] with no general provision for alimony to the husband on final decree may allow alimony for the

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[12] Idaho, Mississippi, Missouri, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Oregon.
[13] Alabama, South Carolina, Texas, Utah.
[14] Maryland, Minnesota, Nevada, South Carolina.
[15] Connecticut, Delaware, Georgia, Kansas, Mississippi, Nebraska, Wyoming.

husband or may hold the wife liable for his support in case of divorce on the basis of his mental illness.

Eleven States [16] allow alimony to either spouse; in addition, Massachusetts and New Hampshire allow the husband a portion of the wife's estate in the nature of alimony. The statutes of Colorado and Virginia are broad enough to apply to either spouse, but in actual practice alimony may be limited to the wife since in neither State does there appear to be a judicial determination permitting alimony to the husband.

119. *Parent and Child*

Under the common law, the father was the preferred natural guardian of the person of a minor child and as such had the care, custody, control, and responsibility for the education of the child. This rule has been abrogated by statute in the majority of States, to provide that natural guardianship of a minor child is vested jointly in both parents. Six States [17] specifically provide by statute that the father is the preferred natural guardian of a minor child and in 1—Alabama—the father is preferred by virtue of the common law.

In addition, 7 States [18] and the District of Columbia specify by statute that the father is preferred when it is necessary to appoint a guardian of the estate of the minor. If the marriage is broken by divorce or legal separation, generally neither parent has any legal advantage over the other as to custody of a minor child; the best interests of the child guide the court's disposition of custody. If there is a contest between the parents regarding custody or guardianship of minor children, at least 7 States [19] provide that, all other things being equal, the mother has a preferred right if the child is of tender years, and the father has a preferred right if the child is of an age to require education and preparation for labor or business.

Unmarried parents.—An unmarried mother is considered the natural guardian and entitled to the custody of her child. The father becomes the natural guardian only if he legally acknowledges his relationship to the child or marries the mother.

Inheritance by parents from children.—No distinction exists between the rights of the father and those of the mother to inherit from legitimate children. Most States allow the unmarried mother to inherit from her child.

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[16] Alaska, California, Illinois, Iowa, North Carolina, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Utah, West Virginia.

[17] Alaska, Georgia, Louisiana, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Texas.

[18] Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, Montana, New Mexico, North Dakota, Texas.

[19] Arizona, California, Michigan, Montana, Oklahoma, South Dakota, Utah.

120. Family Support

Notwithstanding the legal emancipation of women and their increased participation in the labor force, in all States the husband and father is primarily responsible for the support of the family. If the father is dead or otherwise incapable of furnishing such support, the responsibility devolves on the wife and mother. In the 8 States [20] having community-property laws of ownership between husband and wife, the common estate of husband and wife is liable for debts for family support; in the remaining States and the District of Columbia, the property of the husband generally is primarily liable for family necessaries.

There has been a comparatively recent trend to enact State family expense laws that impose liability for family expenses on both parents. At least 17 States [21] have enacted such laws. Irrespective of these statutes, courts in 10 [22] of these jurisdictions have stated that these statutes were enacted for the benefit of creditors and that the father is still primarily liable for family expenses. As a matter of fact, it appears that only 3 of the 17 States—Iowa, Tennessee, and Washington—have interpreted such family expense statutes to mean that the husband's prime liability has been changed. Apparently the remaining 4 States—Montana, North Dakota, Rhode Island, and Wyoming—have not made a judicial determination in this area.

Unmarried parents.—The mother is primarily liable for support of her child born out of wedlock. Most States have legal procedures for establishing paternity if satisfactory proof is submitted. Until paternity is established or voluntarily assumed, the father has no legal obligation to support the child, or to contribute to the expenses of the mother at childbirth.

Uniform Reciprocal Enforcement of Support Act.—Uniform Reciprocal Enforcement of Support Acts are now in effect in all jurisdictions of the United States, following the 1957 law enacted by Congress for the District of Columbia. The prime purpose of this legislation is to permit enforcement of a support decree in any jurisdiction where the party who has liability for support may be found. In addition, these laws provide that public agencies may secure a prospective and continuing support order, as well as reimbursement for public assistance previously given. The laws have been used extensively by courts

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[20] Arizona, California, Idaho, Louisiana, Nevada, New Mexico, Texas, Washington.

[21] Arizona, Arkansas, Colorado, Illinois, Iowa, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Montana, North Dakota, Oregon, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Tennessee, Utah, Washington, Wyoming.

[22] Arizona, Arkansas, Colorado, Illinois, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Oregon, South Dakota, Utah.

throughout the country. Their enforcement has lightened the burden of welfare agencies to a large extent, and incidentally has contributed to the preservation of the family unit since it is easier for the parties to become reconciled when an action is civil and not criminal in character.

One problem, however, has persisted to hamper the effective administration of these acts: that of finding the deserting party responsible for the support of his dependents. An interesting development in this area was the enactment of almost identical laws in 1963 in 4 States—Arkansas, Minnesota, Missouri, and Vermont—following an earlier law in New York. Each of these laws permits responsible agencies within the State or any other State in the Nation to request and receive information from the records of all departments, boards, bureaus, and other State agencies within the State to assist in locating parents who have deserted their children or any other persons liable for the support of their dependents. In 1965 Idaho, Maine, and Maryland adopted such laws.

Civil Status—Contract and Property Law

121. Power To Make Contracts

All States with a common-law background recognize a married woman's legal capacity to contract her personal services in employment outside her home and to be entitled to earnings from such work without the formal consent of her husband. In the eight community-property States [23] a married woman may contract with respect to her employment and earnings from such employment, but the earnings are considered part of the community property.

In the majority of States a married woman may contract with respect to her separate property.

In at least 3 States—Georgia, Idaho, and Kentucky—a married woman does not have the legal capacity to become a surety or a guarantor. In Michigan existing case law [24] prohibiting a married woman from being a surety undoubtedly will be reinterpreted in the light of the State's new constitution. In Texas an express statutory provision prohibiting a married woman from being a bonded obligor was repealed in 1963. However, it is not known if previous decisions stating that married women have no general powers to contract will be appli-

[23] See footnote 20, p. 254.
[24] *Dowagiac National Bank* v. *Maier* (1938), 280 N.W. 86.

cable to the new statutory enactment liberalizing a married woman's powers to contract.[25]

Although a married woman has the power to contract with reference to her separate real property, in 27 States and the District of Columbia there are restrictions—either directly or indirectly imposed by law—on her right to convey or encumber her separate real property. In 22 of these States[26] and the District of Columbia, where both the husband and the wife have either curtesy, dower, or a statutory interest in the nature of dower in the other spouse's property, it is necessary that either spouse join in the conveyance of the real estate belonging to the other spouse in order to bar this interest. While this requirement is of benefit to the married woman in that it can help prevent the dissipation of the assets of her spouse, there are 3 States—Alabama, Florida, and Indiana—which do not give a husband a curtesy or statutory dower interest in the wife's property and which specifically require a husband to join in the conveyance of his wife's real property.

On the other hand, it should be pointed out that 5 States[27] provide dower or statutory interest in the nature of dower for a wife without giving her husband a similar interest in the wife's property, thereby making it necessary for the wife to join in her husband's conveyance of his realty without subjecting her real estate to similar restrictions.

Recent enactments have made a number of major changes in State laws governing the power of a married woman to convey her real estate. In 1963 Texas removed its requirements that a husband join in the conveyance of his wife's property, and in January 1964 North Carolina adopted a constitutional amendment that removed its restriction in this area. During the 1965 State legislative sessions, Massachusetts amended its dower and curtesy law (effective January 1, 1966) to apply only to real estate owned at death, thereby permitting one spouse to sell or encumber his or her real estate without the written consent of the other.

Although married women in general may contract freely with third parties, transactions between husband and wife are still subject to legal limitations in many States. In some States such contracts are restricted by the general rule that controls the action of persons occupying confidential relations with each other. In some States such contracts may be executed by a formal written document, and in others

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[25] *Vernon's Annotated Texas Statutes*, C.S. Art. 4614; 1963 H.B. 403; *Austin et al. v. United Credits Corp.* (1954), 268 S.W. (2d) 793.

[26] Delaware, Hawaii, Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Maine, Maryland, Minnesota, Nebraska, New Hampshire, New Jersey, North Carolina, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Tennessee, Vermont, Virginia, West Virginia, Wisconsin. (Also Missouri for all estates vested as of 1955 when the statutory dower law of 1939 was repealed.)

[27] Arkansas, Michigan, Montana, South Carolina, Utah. (In Utah joinder of wife to bar dower is necessary only if wife is resident of Utah.)

no authority exists to make such contracts. State laws continue to liberalize this area. For example, in 1963 Massachusetts passed a law permitting husband and wife to contract with each other. This was particularly significant because prior to this law separation agreements had to be effectuated through a third party trustee.

122. Ownership, Control, and Use of Property

General.—In property management and control, inheritance, and freedom of enjoyment of earnings, no distinction is made between the rights of unmarried women and unmarried men; and in most States married women and married men now have the same degree of control over their separate property.

Personal earnings of married women are made their separate property by specific statute in most of the States not having a community-property law. Earnings are considered community property in the community-property States,[28] but 3 of these 8 States—California, Idaho, and Washington—provide that the wife may control her earnings. (In Washington the right is absolute; in the other 2 States the right is qualified.)

Four States—California, Florida, Nevada, and Pennsylvania—have statutes under which court sanction, and in some cases the husband's consent, is required for a wife's legal venture into an independent business. It should be noted, however, that in Pennsylvania other laws enacted over the years after the original sole-trader statute of 1718 have increased a married woman's powers over her separate property to the extent that the sole-trader law appears to be primarily a protective statute. Thus a married woman may be adjudged a sole trader in Pennsylvania under conditions of nonsupport by her husband, and when she is so adjudged her husband loses his right to claim an inheritance interest in his wife's estate. In addition, Massachusetts requires a married woman or her husband to file a certificate with the city or town clerk's office in order to prevent the personal property of her business from being liable for her husband's debts.

Property acquired by joint efforts after marriage.—In the 8 States[29] which have the community-property system, the husband has superior right to control all property acquired by joint efforts while the spouses live together.

In the District of Columbia and the 42 States that are not community-property States, the personal property accumulated during the marriage by the cooperative efforts of both husband and wife

[28] See footnote 20, p. 254.
[29] See footnote 20, p. 254.

is generally under the control of the husband, subject to certain restrictions; but the effect of this rule may be overcome by private agreement between the parties.

In these same jurisdictions the control of the real estate depends upon the type of coownership under which it is held. Under the common law, real estate conveyed or devised to husband and wife created an estate by the entireties held by them as one person, with the husband entitled to all the rents, profits, and enjoyment thereof. Although the common-law estate by the entireties may still be created in the District of Columbia and in the majority of the 42 States that are not community-property States, it is also generally possible for married persons to own real estate by some other form of coownership under which each party is entitled to one-half of the rents, profits, and enjoyment thereof.

Disposition of property after death.—Married women may dispose of their separate property by will as freely as married men may. In the absence of a will, the majority of States provide that a widow or widower inherits from the deceased spouse in a similar manner. The surviving spouse's share of the estate generally depends on whether there are surviving issue, parents, or next of kin.

In both the common-law and community-property States, a surviving husband or wife generally receives all of the property separately owned by the deceased spouse if there are no descendants and one-half or one-third if there are descendants.

In all the community-property States,[30] the wife receives her half of the community property. In addition, in 4 of these States she receives her husband's half; in 3 States she receives her husband's half if there are no descendants, and in 1 State she receives his half if there are no descendants or parents. In the common-law States jointly owned property is divided according to the title.

[30] See footnote 20, p. 254.

Part III

Commissions on the Status of Women

COMMISSIONS ON THE STATUS OF WOMEN

Federal

An upsurge of interest in the status of women was engendered by the President's Commission on the Status of Women, established by President John F. Kennedy, December 14, 1961. The function of the Commission was to examine and recommend remedies for the prejudices and outmoded customs, which the President said in his Executive order, "act as barriers to the full realization of women's basic rights which should be respected and fostered as part of our Nation's commitment to human dignity, freedom, and democracy."

The Commission and its seven committees studied a wide variety of problems affecting women's role in the economic, political, and cultural life of the Nation. Its recommendations were in its report *American Women*, which was presented to the President October 11, 1963.

The Commission gave top priority to education and recommended greater educational opportunities for women at all levels of learning and increased counseling facilities for women and girls. It stressed the need for new and expanded services to enable women to meet more effectively their responsibilities as homemakers and workers. In the field of employment it recommended equal opportunities for women in hiring, training, promotion, and pay, and improvement of minimum wage laws and other labor legislation affecting women. Other recommendations called for action to insure for women equality under the law, greater social insurance and tax benefits, and a larger role as citizens. The Commission urged special attention to the needs of disadvantaged women and girls in carrying out all its recommendations.

Acting upon a final recommendation of the Commission for continuing leadership at the Federal level to further the objectives proposed in its report, President Kennedy established the Interdepartmental Committee and the Citizens' Advisory Council on the Status of Women, November 1, 1963.

The Interdepartmental Committee seeks to stimulate cooperation and the exchange of ideas and information among Federal agencies, State and local governments, State commissions on the status of women, and public and private organizations concerned with areas

of particular interest to women. The Committee also encourages research on factors affecting women's status, and reviews and evaluates the progress of Federal departments and agencies in advancing the interests of women. Members are heads of Federal departments and agencies especially concerned with matters affecting the status of women. The Secretary of Labor serves as chairman, the Assistant Secretary for Labor Standards as vice chairman, and the Director of the Women's Bureau as executive vice-chairman.

The Citizens' Advisory Council works with private institutions, organizations, and individuals, suggesting and stimulating action directed toward furthering full participation of women in all phases of national life. It reviews and evaluates progress made and advises and assists the Interdepartmental Committee. The Council's members are private citizens, many of whom served on the original Commission. Miss Margaret Hickey was named chairman by President Kennedy.

The Committee and the Council, which publish an annual progress report, have received full support from President Johnson, who early assumed leadership in making the Federal Government a showcase for equal opportunity for women. Between January 1, 1964, and June 30, 1965, he announced appointment of 120 women to key government posts; Federal departments and agencies, with his encouragement, appointed 675 women and promoted 2,285 to positions at salary levels of $10,600 and above.

In addition to the improvement of opportunities for women in government, other advances in the status of women resulted from the new climate of acceptance which the Commission effected. A Federal equal pay law was enacted in 1963, and a prohibition against discrimination in employment based on sex was included in the Civil Rights Act of 1964 as Title VII.

The Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 included women in the Job Corps and other programs under the act, and the enactment of Federal aid to education legislation opened many opportunities to women. Interest in day care services was stimulated by grants to the States under the Social Security Act, and income tax deductions for child care were liberalized. Commissions on the Status of Women in most States concerned themselves with implementation of the recommendations of the President's Commission at the State and local level.

The Interdepartmental Committee and the Council have worked closely with the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, whose chairman is a member of the Committee, in developing policy for

the implementation of Title VII of the Civil Rights Act. A statement of the Council's views on the issues, stressing the importance of vigorous administration in securing greater social and economic gains for women workers, was approved by the Interdepartmental Committee and transmitted to the Commission. The paper pointed out that Title VII is of special importance for Negro women who have been the victims of both race and sex discrimination.

The Interdepartmental Committee and the Citizens' Advisory Council sponsored conferences of State Commissions on the Status of Women in Washington, D.C., in June 1964 and in July 1965. The first conference was attended by 83 delegates from 31 States; the second, by 327 delegates from 49 States and Canada.

State

In August 1962 the Governor of Michigan announced the appointment of a Commission on the Status of Women. His example was followed in other States until by September 1965 a total of 45 [1] Commissions had been established, 4 of those currently in effect [2] by legislation and the others by gubernatorial action. Over half had published either interim or full-term reports of their findings and recommendations, and in all but one State the Commissions had been requested to continue, usually with some revision of membership, in order to help implement their recommendations. In that one State the Governor decided that the Commission's findings could be implemented best through administrative action by agencies already existing.

Commissions were not necessarily continued under their original names. In several States a name was chosen which fitted more exactly the specific areas the Governor or legislature wanted the group to emphasize or which was related more closely to the basic structure of the State's organization. Thus one Governor's Commission on the Status of Women became the Advisory Council on the Status of Women; another became the Governor's Commission on Education and Employment. Several others were established under the name of a "committee" rather than a "commission."

The full impact of this work on specific State situations, by representatives chosen from a broad range of social, economic, and occupational backgrounds, cannot be described in any report. No way has

[1] Not included were Alaska, Connecticut, New Mexico, Ohio, and Texas. In Puerto Rico and the District of Columbia, Commissions were under consideration.

[2] The original 4 included California, Illinois, Massachusetts, and Mississippi. Later North Carolina changed from a Governor's Commission to one established by the legislature, and Illinois moved from a legislative commission to one appointed by the Governor.

been found to measure the effect of the explorations and recommendations of the State Commissions on the legislatures, on State institutions, and on women's and civic organizations in general. By focusing attention on their findings in such areas as education, employment, guidance and counseling, day care, and consumer affairs, the Commissions have been responsible for awakening the public conscience and for pointing to ways in which needed action might be effected.

One significant result of the Commissions' work is the rapidly growing realization on the part of their members that successful implementation of Commission recommendations requires more than pointing out what is wrong; it requires intelligent and continuing participation in the areas where decisions are made, and the application of techniques for the mobilization of support.

In the country as a whole the program has in fact become a locally based national movement to open opportunities to women for more effective functioning in each of their multiple roles. The 1964 and 1965 national conferences, as well as the interchange of State reports and other materials, have opened active channels of communication. In addition, a series of regional conferences is in the planning stage. The first of these will be held for nine States in San Francisco early in 1966.

Although it would be impossible to include here the full story of each Commission's contribution in terms of its own State's needs, the following examples are representative of the broad scope of what is happening throughout the 45 States where Commissions have been established.[3]

> Two States have found a way to broaden the representation on their Commissions. In one the State Council of Women's Organizations (representing 34 statewide groups and more than half a million women) has appointed a special committee to help the new seven-member Commission on the Education and Employment of Women implement the recommendations in the first Commission's report. In the other the Commission itself called together representatives of statewide organizations in which women made up the total or a large part of the membership. This resulted in the establishment of a committee, which currently represents 46 groups, to be used as a two-way channel for getting problems to the Commission and for implementing recommendations.

[3] For a more detailed description, see the 1965 Progress Report of the Citizens' Advisory Council or consult the individual Commissions' reports to their Governors or legislatures.

A technique that at least five States have found useful is a series of regional or area meetings to acquaint local persons with the Commission's findings and recommendations and to secure their help in implementation. In two of the States, City Commissions on the Status of Women have grown from these area meetings.

Almost all of the Commissions have made rosters of qualified women for Federal, State, and local positions and have urged their appointment. Among recent appointments directly traceable to the Commissions' activities are: a member of a State civil service commission, a State legislative council, a State building board, a State human relations committee, and a commission on uniform State laws; several members of boards of trustees of institutions of higher learning; a registrar of motor vehicles; and a deputy director of personnel for State employees.

A speakers bureau established by one Commission proved very helpful by assisting women's and civic groups to become acquainted with the program and findings of the Commission and to help implement its recommendations.

A 30-minute television show on the status of women prepared by one Commission was taped and shown. This same Commission was especially successful in securing excellent cooperation and television coverage for its activities in general.

One Commission obtained from its legislature an appropriation of $10,000 to finance the printing of the Commission's report.

One Commission in an industrialized State is working actively to help clarify the relationship of its State laws to the rulings of the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission.

Most State Commissions have functioned actively on the legislative front, recommending a broad range of bills. Most frequently this activity was centered on efforts to initiate minimum wage provisions, or to improve the rates and extend the law to men. Equal pay laws also were given much support, as were, to a somewhat lesser degree, changes in State jury provisions, extension of day care facilities, and improvement in vocational education opportunities and in guidance and counseling programs.

One Commission initiated and gave support to a citizens' committee for an effective minimum wage. When that bill failed of passage, the Commission members met with that

committee to review its procedures and to work at what they hope might be more successful plans for the next legislative session.

One Commission, which has made a special effort to participate in launching needed projects, organized and gave support to (1) a committee establishing an MDTA project for training and raising the status of household employees, (2) a statewide conference on consumer interests, and (3) a conference on "Women on the Move" cosponsored with a chapter of the National Council of Jewish Women. Another Commission plans to work closely with a new Job Corps center for women in that State.

The names and addresses of the chairmen of the various States Commissions on the Status of Women follow.

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Mrs. Howard W. Hintz
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Mrs. Charlotte Gardner
Director of Beautification
Arkansas Planning Commission
Game and Fish Commission Building
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Little Rock, Ark., 72201

Miss Ruth Miller[1]
National Representative and
West Coast Education Director
Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America
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Mrs. Virginia Neal Blue
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Mrs. Mamie K. Taylor
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Mrs. Mary Ellen Swanton
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Rep. Edith Miller Klein
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Rep. Esther Saperstein
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Dr. Eunice C. Roberts
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Dr. Marguerite Scruggs
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Miss Chloe Gifford
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Mrs. Ellen Bryan Moore
Register of State Land Office
State Capitol
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Mrs. Ruth L. Crowley [3]
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Sen. Mary Fonseca
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Mrs. Paul G. Goebel
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Mrs. Charles Hymes
2044 West Cedar Lake Boulevard
Minneapolis, Minn., 55416

Judge Mildred W. Norris
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Hattiesburg, Miss., 39401

Dr. Blanche H. Dow
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Liberty, Mo., 64068

Mrs. Edna Hinman
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[3] Advisory Council on the Status of Women.

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Mrs. Marion Koleser
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Mrs. Oswald B. Lord [3]
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Sen. Voit Gilmore [4]
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Miss Dagny Olson
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Mrs. Ettamae Reed
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[3] Governor's Committee on Education and Employment has completed its work and reported to the Governor.

[4] Governor's Commission on Education and Employment.

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[5] Governor's Committee on the Status of Women.

Part IV

Organizations of Interest to Women

ORGANIZATIONS OF INTEREST TO WOMEN

National organizations for women, together with some professional organizations for both women and men, are grouped in the following list according to fields of interest. Membership is noted when recent figures are available. (For an alphabetical list of organizations included, see pages 288–290.)

Social, Civic, and Religious Organizations

American Women's Voluntary Services, Inc., 125 East 65th Street, New York, N.Y., 10021. Founded 1940. Its purpose is to make available to all women of America the opportunity to work actively on a voluntary basis for their country through constructive service to their community, and to instruct and guide these volunteers toward the achievement of this end.

Association of the Junior Leagues of America, Inc., The Waldorf-Astoria, New York, N.Y., 10022. Founded 1901. Nonprofit, advisory to 206 Junior Leagues in the United States, Canada, and Mexico, with total membership of 87,000 community volunteers. Junior League purpose is to foster interest among its members in the social, economic, educational, cultural, and civic conditions of the community, and to make their volunteer service efficient.

B'nai B'rith Women, 1640 Rhode Island Avenue NW., Washington, D.C., 20036. Founded 1895. It is a Jewish women's service organization engaging in education, civic, and philanthropic programs. It provides both womanpower and financial support for projects vital to the welfare of the individual, community, and country. The largest part of its funds and programing is devoted to youth-building activities and advancement of equal opportunity and rights for all. The organization established and maintains a home for emotionally disturbed children in Israel. In the United States it contributes to the support of a number of national medical institutions and a residential treatment center for children. Membership: 135,000 in the United States and Canada.

Camp Fire Girls, Inc., 65 Worth Street, New York, N.Y., 10013. Founded 1910. Its purpose is to perpetuate the spiritual ideals of the home and to stimulate and aid in the formation of habits making for health and character. It seeks to serve the leisure-time needs of all girls between the ages of 7 and 18 and emphasizes the individual development of each girl. Its program supplements the training of the home, church or synagogue, and school through enjoyable and character-building activities. Membership: 600,000.

General Federation of Women's Clubs, 1734 N Street NW., Washington, D.C., 20006. Established 1890. Its objective is to unite women's clubs and like or-

ganizations throughout the world for mutual benefit and for the promotion of their common interest in education, philanthropy, public welfare, moral values, civics, and fine arts. Membership: 11 million through combined membership with affiliated groups in 58 countries, territories, and possessions (862,740 per capita paying members).

Girl Scouts of the United States of America, 830 Third Avenue, New York, N.Y., 10022. Founded 1912. The purpose of scouting is to help girls develop as happy, resourceful individuals willing to share their abilities as citizens in their homes, their communities, their country, and the world. Membership: 2,836,000 girls, 720,000 adults.

Girls Clubs of America, Inc., 101 Park Avenue, New York, N.Y., 10017. Founded 1945. National nonprofit youth organization. Its goal is to train girls to be responsible citizens and homemakers. The organization provides daily out-of-school programs in permanent clubhouses for girls from 6 years of age through high school. The program is available to all girls, regardless of race, creed, or national origin, at flexible membership fees. Membership: 60,000 girls, 100 clubs throughout the Nation and Canada.

Hadassah, The Women's Zionist Organization of America, Inc., 65 East 52d Street, New York, N.Y., 10022. Founded 1912. Its purpose is to participate in efforts that help safeguard the democratic way of life here and that work toward peace and security throughout the world; provide basic Jewish education as background for intelligent and creative Jewish living in America and help interpret Israel to the American people. Through affiliation with Hadassah in Israel, it supports medical institutions, teaching, research and public health networks, and child welfare and vocational education projects. Through *Junior Hadassah*, it fosters a program of Jewish education, encourages participation in American civic affairs, and provides fellowships and other grants for travel and study in Israel.

League of Women Voters of the United States, 1026 17th Street NW., Washington, D.C., 20006. Founded 1920. Its purpose is to promote political responsibility through informed and active participation of citizens in government. Membership: 135,600 in over 1,181 local Leagues organized in 50 States and the District of Columbia.

Lucy Stone League, The, 38 East 57th Street, New York, N.Y., 10022. The League is a center for research and information on the status of women. Membership: About 100.

National Association of Colored Women's Clubs, Inc., 1601 R Street NW., Washington, D.C., 20009. The organization was founded in 1896 to prepare women for complete community participation by raising the standards of homelife and by providing better health, educational, and economic opportunities. Membership: 100,000 in 42 States.

National Committee on Household Employment, % Mrs. Lois Harper, Executive Director, 1346 Connecticut Avenue, NW., Washington, D.C., 20036. Founded 1965. Its purpose is to serve as a clearinghouse and coordinator for all organizations concerned with upgrading the status of private-household employment, to provide leadership in establishing and promoting standards for private-household work, to serve as liaison with government agencies, and to stimulate the development of additional jobs—new and traditional—and train-

ing opportunities in the private-household field. Local counterparts of the national agencies and organizations participating in the National Committee form committees on household employment which enlist the assistance and services of local public and private agencies to carry out its program and achieve its objectives. Membership: 16 national voluntary agencies and organizations with a combined, unduplicated membership of approximately 25 million men and women.

National Consumers League, 1029 Vermont Avenue NW., Washington, D.C., 20005. Established 1899. Its purpose is to awaken consumers' interest in their responsibility for conditions under which goods are made and distributed and, through investigation, education, and legislation, to promote fair labor standards. Its legislative program includes consumer protection, minimum wage, child labor, hours of work, social security, and improvement of the conditions of migrant workers in agriculture. There are active State branches in New York, New Jersey, and Ohio, and individual members in every State. (Not restricted to women.)

National Council of Catholic Women, 1312 Massachusetts Avenue NW., Washington, D.C., 20005. Established 1920. Its purpose is to federate existing organizations of Catholic women in order that they may speak and act as a unit when the welfare of the church or the country demands such expression. Through special committees, it endeavors to stimulate interest in the welfare of all workers. Affiliated with World Union of Catholic Women's Organizations. Membership: 10 million women through more than 14,000 national, State, diocesan, and local affiliated groups.

National Council of Jewish Women, Inc., 1 West 47th Street, New York, N.Y., 10036. Established 1893. An educational and service organization which leads and educates women for constructive action in the community. Through 329 affiliated local units, it maintains over 1,000 community services to the aging, to children and youth, in mental health, and for the foreign born. A major emphasis in recent years has been development of programs to meet the needs of out-of-school, out-of-work youth. It also conducts an adult education and social action program concerned with major national and international issues. Its oversea program extends these services to Jewish communities abroad by sponsoring studies in U.S. graduate schools for educators and social welfare specialists, and by direct financial aid to educational institutions. Membership: 123,000.

National Council of Negro Women, Inc., 1318 Vermont Avenue NW., Washington, D.C., 20005. Organized 1935. The Council seeks the cooperation and membership of all races and works for the integration of Negroes into the economic, social, cultural, civic, and political life of every community. There are 20 national organizations and 95 local councils capable of reaching 850,000 women.

National Council of Women of the United States, Inc., 345 East 46th Street, New York, N.Y., 10017. Founded 1888. Serves as information center and clearinghouse for 27 affiliated women's organizations; conducts pilot projects and sponsors conferences on national and international problems and matters of concern to women, sharing results with affiliated groups; and provides exchange of news and ideas among the women of the free world. Membership: Approximately 4 million (individual and through affiliates).

National Jewish Welfare Board, 145 East 32d Street, New York, N.Y., 10016. Founded 1917. It is the national association of Young Men's and Women's Hebrew Associations and Jewish Community Centers. It is also the recognize Jewish community agency for meeting the religious, welfare, and morale needs of Jewish personnel in the Armed Forces and their dependents, and is a constituent agency of the United Service Organizations (USO). The Women's Organizations' Services of the National Jewish Welfare Board coordinate the work of nine national Jewish women's organizations united for services to hospitalized veterans, military personnel in camps, and chaplains.

National Social Welfare Assembly, Inc., 345 East 46th Street, New York, N.Y., 10017. Organized 1945. The Assembly serves as central national planning body through which specialized interests in social welfare—government and voluntary, national and local, lay and professional—come to grips with the needs of people. Membership: 225 individuals from 71 affiliated national organizations and 5 associate groups, and members-at-large. About one-third are women.

National Woman's Christian Temperance Union, 1730 Chicago Avenue, Evanston, Ill., 60201. Established 1874. Its purpose is to unite the Christian women of the United States for the education of the public to a standard of total abstinence from alcoholic beverages and abolition of liquor traffic, for youth training in habits of total abstinence and sobriety, and for the promotion of good citizenship, peace, and the general welfare. Paid membership: 300,000.

National Woman's Forum, Inc., 266 Fulton Avenue, Hempstead, N.Y., 11550. Founded 1944. Under the motto "For a United Community—For a Stronger Democracy," it serves as a clearinghouse of organizations (primarily women's) on the local level, coordinating their activities in common projects for the betterment of the community and the strengthening of democracy at the grassroots.

United Church Women, 475 Riverside Drive, New York, N.Y., 10027. Organized December 1941. It is a General Department of the National Council of the Churches of Christ in the United States of America. Its purpose is to unite churchwomen in their allegiance to their Lord and Saviour, Jesus Christ, through a program looking to their integration in the total life and work of the church and the building of a world Christian community. Membership: 12 million and 2,300 local councils of churchwomen.

Women's International League for Peace and Freedom, administrative headquarters U.S. Section: Jane Addams House, 2006 Walnut Street, Philadelphia, Pa., 19103; legislative office: 120 Maryland Avenue NE., Washington, D.C., 20002. Established 1915 in The Hague. Its purpose is to unite those in all countries who oppose every kind of war, exploitation, and oppression, and who want to work by nonviolent means for the solution of conflicts by establishment of justice for all, without distinction as to sex, race, class, or creed.

Young Women's Christian Association of the United States of America, 600 Lexington Avenue, New York, N.Y., 10022. Founded in the United States 1858. Organized to advance the physical, mental, social, and spiritual well-being of women and girls, and to build a fellowship of women and girls devoted to the task of realizing in our common life those ideals of

personal and social living to which we are committed by our faith as Christians. Affiliated with the World YWCA. Approximately 5,500 locations in United States.

Professional and Business Organizations

National Association of Negro Business and Professional Women's Clubs, Inc., c/o Mrs. Marion E. Bryant, President, 652 Bryn Mawr Road, Pittsburgh, Pa., 15219. Founded 1935. Its purpose is to promote and protect the interests of Negro business and professional women and create good fellowship among them, to direct their interests toward united action for improved social and civic conditions, to encourage the training and development of women, and to inspire and train young women for leadership. Membership: 10,000.

National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs, Inc., The, 2012 Massachusetts Avenue NW., Washington, D.C., 20006. Established 1919. Its purpose is to elevate the standards and promote the interests of business and professional women, and to extend opportunities to business and professional women through education along lines of industrial, scientific, and vocational activities. Affiliated with International Federation of Business and Professional Women. Membership: 170,000 in 3,550 clubs in the United States, Puerto Rico, and Virgin Islands.

Accountancy

American Society of Women Accountants, 327 South LaSalle Street, Chicago, Ill., 60604. Founded 1938. Its purpose is to offer technical and educational programs to improve the efficiency of its members, to provide opportunity for exchange of ideas, and to encourage many of its members to become certified public accountants. Membership: 3,400.

American Woman's Society of Certified Public Accountants, 327 South LaSalle Street, Chicago, Ill., 60604. Founded 1933. Its purpose is to advance the professional interest of women certified public accountants and to promote a greater interest among women in the higher attainments of the accounting profession. Membership: 525.

Banking

National Association of Bank-Women, Inc., 60 East 42d Street, New York, N.Y., 10017. Founded 1921. Its purpose is to bring together women executives engaged in the profession of banking for exchange of ideas and experiences for mutual benefit, to promote the interests of its members, and to further the interests of all women in the banking profession. It is the only national organization of executive women in banking, with members from national, State, and savings banks, and trust companies. Membership: 4,500.

Construction

National Association of Women in Construction, P.O. Box 13615, Atlanta, Ga., 30324. Organized 1953; received national charter 1955. Objectives: to unite for their mutual benefit women who are actively engaged in various phases of the construction industry, to encourage cooperation and better understanding among women in the industry, and to promote fellowship and good will among

members of the organization. Membership is open to all women who are employed in or who own businesses in the construction or allied fields. NAWIC is nonprofit, nonsectarian, and nonpartisan; not affiliated with any religious, fraternal, or labor group. There are 86 chapters in various cities throughout the United States. Membership: Over 3,500.

Engineering

Society of Women Engineers, United Engineering Center, 3d Floor, 345 East 47th Street, New York, N.Y., 10017. Established 1950. Its purpose is to inform young women, their parents, counselors, and the public in general of the qualifications and achievements of women engineers and of the opportunities open to them; to assist women engineers in readying themselves for a return to active work after temporary retirement; and to encourage women engineers to attain high levels of educational and professional achievement. Membership: 800.

Fashion

Fashion Group, Inc., The, 9 Rockefeller Plaza, New York, N.Y., 10020. Founded 1931. It is a nonprofit association of women engaged in fashion work, formed to advance the principles of applied art in industry, to maintain high standards, to provide liaison among the many facets of fashion industries, to disseminate information on trends through meetings and bulletins, and to encourage new interest in fashion through training courses and scholarships. Membership: 4,000 members with 28 regional groups in the United States, plus 2 regional groups in Canada, 1 in Melbourne, Australia, and an allied group in Paris.

Finance

Federation of Women Shareholders in American Business, Inc., 527 Lexington Avenue, New York, N.Y., 10017. Its purpose is (a) to educate women concerning the importance of using their vote as stockholders (including the goal of a secret ballot for all shareholders—especially employee-shareholders—in corporate elections); (b) to delineate their responsibilities as employers of management and labor; and (c) to provide financial education for women because they own, although they do not control, 70 percent of the privately owned wealth. It supports equal pay for equal work, equal mandatory retirement age, and equal training and opportunity in business.

Geography

Society of Woman Geographers, The, 1216 Connecticut Avenue NW., Washington, D.C., 20036. Founded 1925. Its purpose is to form a medium of contact between traveled women engaged in geographical work and allied arts and sciences, to further geographical work in all its branches, to spread geographical knowledge, and to encourage geographical research. Membership: 400.

Health Services

American Association of Industrial Nurses, Inc., 170 East 61st Street, New York, N.Y., 10021. Founded 1942. It is the professional association of registered nurses engaged in the practice of industrial nursing. Its purpose is to maintain

the honor and character of the profession among industrial nurses, to improve community health by better nursing service to workers, to develop and promote standards for industrial nurses and industrial nursing services, and to stimulate interest in and provide a forum for the discussion of problems in the field of industrial nursing. Membership: 5,503.

American Association of Medical Record Librarians, 840 North Lake Shore Drive, Chicago, Ill., 60611. Founded 1928. Its purpose is to improve the quality and efficiency of medical records in hospitals, clinics, and other health and mental institutions; to establish standards and criteria of competency; and to develop and improve the teaching and practice of medical record science so that it may be of greater service to the science of medicine and public health. Membership: 4,760. (Not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women.)

American Association of Nurse Anesthetists, Suite 3010, Prudential Plaza, Chicago, Ill., 60601. Founded 1931. Its purpose is to develop educational standards and techniques in the administration of anesthetics, to facilitate cooperation between nurse anesthetists and the medical profession, and to promote an educational program on the importance of the proper administration of anesthetics. Membership: 11,676.

American Dental Assistants Association, Inc., 410 First National Bank Building, LaPorte, Ind., 46350. Established 1924. Its purpose is to promote the education of the dental assistant, to improve and sustain the vocation of dental assisting, and to contribute to the advancement of the dental profession and the improvement of public health. Membership: 14,000.

American Dental Hygienists' Association, 100 East Ohio Street, Chicago, Ill., 60611. Established 1923. Its purpose is to elevate and sustain the professional character and education of dental hygienists; to promote among them mutual improvement, social intercourse, and good will; to inform and direct public opinion in relation to dental hygiene and the promotion of pertinent legislation; and to represent and safeguard the common interests of members of the profession. Membership: Approximately 4,600. Student membership: 2,700.

American Medical Women's Association, Inc., 1790 Broadway, New York, N.Y., 10019. Founded 1915. Its purpose is to further the art and science of medicine; to promote interests common to women physicians and the public; to aid and encourage premedical, medical, and postgraduate medical students; to foster medical relief projects; and to cooperate with other organizations having comparable interests. Affiliated with the Medical Women's International Association.

American Nurses' Association, Inc., 10 Columbus Circle, New York, N.Y., 10019. Organized 1896 as the Nurses Associated Alumnae of the United States and Canada. It is an organization of registered professional nurses. Its purposes are to foster high standards of nursing practice, to promote the professional and educational advancement of nurses, to advance the economic and general welfare of nurses, to promote research to improve the practice of nursing, and to support legislation to provide all people with better nursing care. Affiliated with the International Council of Nurses. Membership: 170,000.

American Occupational Therapy Association, 250 West 57th Street, New York, N.Y., 10019. Founded 1917. Its objectives are to promote the use of occupa-

tional therapy, to advance standards of education and training in this field, to conduct a national registration examination, to maintain a registry of qualified occupational therapists, to promote research, and to engage in other activities advantageous to the profession and its members. Membership: 5,387. Registrants: 6,568. (Not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women.)

American Physical Therapy Association, 1790 Broadway, New York, N.Y., 10019. Founded 1921. The object of this organization is to foster the development and improvement of physical therapy service and physical therapy education through the coordinated action of physical therapists, allied professional groups, citizens, agencies, and schools so that the physical therapy needs of the people will be met. Membership: 10,035. (Approximately 75 percent are women.) In addition, there are 1,100 student members.

American Society of Medical Technologists, c/o Rose Matthael, Executive Secretary, Suite 25, Hermann Professional Building, Houston, Tex., 77025. Founded 1933. Its purpose is to promote higher standards in clinical laboratory methods and research, and to raise the status of those specializing in medical laboratory technique. Membership: 9,000. (Not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women.)

American Society of Radiologic Technologists, c/o Genevieve J. Eilert, Executive Secretary, 537 South Main Street, Fond du Lac, Wis., 54935. Founded 1920. Its purpose is to promote the science and art of radiography and to assist in establishing approved standards of training and recognized qualifications for those engaged in technical work in radiological departments. Membership: 12,631. (Not restricted to women, but membership about 70 percent women.)

American Speech and Hearing Association, 1001 Connecticut Avenue NW., Washington, D.C., 20006. Founded 1925. Its purposes are to encourage basic scientific study of the processes of individual human speech and hearing, to promote investigation of speech and hearing disorders, and to foster improvement of therapeutic procedures with such disorders; to stimulate exchange of information among persons thus engaged and to disseminate such information. Membership, including associates: 11,300. (Not restricted to women.)

Association of American Women Dentists, c/o Dr. Dollie R. Woodul, 6115 La Vista Drive, Dallas, Tex., 75214. Founded 1921. Objectives are to promote good fellowship and cooperation among its members and to aid in the advancement of women in dentistry. Membership: Approximately 300.

National Association for Practical Nurse Education and Service, Inc., 475 Riverside Drive, New York, N.Y., 10027. Organized 1941. Its major purpose is to promote practical nurse education. It conducts an accrediting program for schools of practical nursing; sponsors workshops, institutes, and summer school sessions; offers consultation services; and publishes a monthly magazine, manuals, and other educational literature. Membership: 1,844 individual and sustaining members; 21,909 State associations (per capita); 37 group members; and 2,009 students enrolled as future members. (Not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women.)

National Association of Social Workers, 2 Park Avenue, New York, N.Y., 10006. Established October 1, 1955. Its purpose is to improve the quality of social

work practice, advance the profession, and represent it on social welfare issues. Membership: 40,000. Chapters: 167 in all 50 States and in Puerto Rico. (Membership includes both men and women.)

National Federation of Licensed Practical Nurses, Inc., 250 West 57th Street, New York, N.Y., 10019. Organized 1949. Its major objectives are to associate all licensed practical nurses and to protect their welfare, to further the highest ethical principles, to interpret the standards of licensed practical nursing, and to promote the most effective use of their services. Membership: 32,000.

National League for Nursing, 10 Columbus Circle, New York, N.Y., 10019. Organized 1952. Its purpose is to foster the development of hospital, industrial, public health, and other organized nursing services and of nursing education through the coordinated action of nurses, allied professional groups, citizens, agencies, and schools so that the nursing needs of the people will be met. Membership: 24,712 individuals and 1,341 member agencies.

Home Economics

American Dietetic Association, 620 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago, Ill., 60611. Founded 1917. The objective of this association is to improve the nutrition of human beings, to advance the science of dietetics and nutrition, and to promote education in these and allied areas. Membership: 17,000. (Not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women.)

American Home Economics Association, 1600 20th Street NW., Washington, D.C., 20009. Established 1909. It is the professional organization for all home economists and those employed in fields related to home economics. Activities include consumer interests, publications, career information, and national and international scholarships and fellowships. The official organ is the Journal of Home Economics, published September through June. Membership: 23,500 individual members; 350 affiliated college chapters; 200 groups of home economists in homemaking. (Not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women.)

Housekeeping

National Executive Housekeepers Association, Inc., The, c/o Mrs. Alberta J. Wetherholt, Secretary, Holzer Hospital and Clinic, Gallipolis, Ohio, 45631. Incorporated 1931. Its purpose is to bring together the progressive executive housekeepers of the country in an active, cooperative body; to encourage educational activities and high professional standards; to encourage a wider knowledge of administrative problems; to promote research; and to engage in other activities advantageous to the profession and its members. Membership: Approximately 2,300 in 54 chapters. (Approximately 85 percent are women.)

Insurance

National Association of Insurance Women, 823 South Detroit Avenue, Tulsa, Okla., 74120. Founded June 1940. Its purpose is to encourage and foster

educational programs designed to broaden the knowledge of insurance of its members and to cultivate their friendship, loyalty, and service. Membership: Approximately 14,000 in 276 affiliated clubs.

Women Leaders Round Table, The National Association of Life Underwriters, c/o Miss Ethel B. Karene, C.L.U., Union Central Life Insurance Co., 225 Broadway, New York, N.Y., 10007. Founded 1936. Its purpose is to promote a friendly relationship among women underwriters who are producing a considerable volume of business, and to provide for an interchange of ideas to the advantage of the institution of life insurance and of the general public. Membership: 300.

Interior Decoration

American Institute of Interior Designers, 673 Fifth Avenue, New York, N.Y., 10022. Founded 1931. A nonprofit association of interior designers and decorators, organized to maintain standards of design and professional practice. Membership: 4,800 in 36 chapters. (Not restricted to women.)

Law

National Association of Women Lawyers, American Bar Center, 1155 East 60th Street, Chicago, Ill., 60637. Founded 1899. Its purpose is to promote the welfare and interests of women lawyers, to maintain the honor and integrity of the legal profession, to aid in the enactment of legislation for the common good and in the administration of justice, and to undertake actively whatever is necessary to promote and advance the purposes of the association. Membership: 1,200.

Library Science

American Library Association, 50 East Huron Street, Chicago, Ill., 60611. Founded 1876. Its objective is to promote library service and librarianship. Membership: Approximately 25,000. (Not restricted to women, but personal membership is predominantly women.)

Special Libraries Association, 31 East 10th Street, New York, N.Y., 10003. Organized 1909. Its purpose is to promote the collection, organization, and dissemination of information in specialized fields and to improve the usefulness of special libraries and information services. Membership: 6,100. (Not restricted to women.)

Music

National Federation of Music Clubs, Suite 1215, 600 South Michigan Avenue, Chicago, Ill., 60605. Founded 1898. Its purpose is to bring into working relations with one another music clubs and other musical organizations and individuals directly or indirectly associated with musical activity, for the purpose of developing and maintaining high musical standards; to aid and encourage musical education; and to promote American music and American artists throughout America and other countries. Membership: 600,000. (Not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women.)

Personnel

International Association of Personnel Women, c/o Mrs. Agnes A. Milhoan, State Compensation Insurance Fund, 648 Capitol Annex, Denver, Colo., 80203. Founded 1951. Its objectives are to encourage, promote, and extend women's memberships in associations devoted to a better understanding of employer-employee relationships; to encourage and assist women to prepare for careers in the fields of personnel and industrial relations; to stimulate the organization of local groups for study, research, and exchange of information and ideas; and to promote scientific study of personnel and industrial relations work by collecting and publishing such information, organizing conferences and discussion groups, and publishing and distributing conference proceedings and other books, periodicals, and reports that will help accomplish its purposes and objectives. Membership: 1,000.

Radio and Television

American Women in Radio and Television, Inc., 75 East 55th Street, New York, N.Y., 10022. Established 1951. The objectives of this professional organization of women working as broadcasters, executives, and administrators and in a creative capacity in radio, television, broadcast-advertising, and closely allied fields, are to provide a medium for communication and exchange of ideas; to encourage cooperation within the allied fields of the industry; and to augment the value of members to their employers, their industry, their community, and their country. Membership: 1,600.

Railway

National Association of Railway Business Women, Inc., Room 714, 50 East Broad Street, Columbus, Ohio, 43215. Organized 1918; incorporated 1941. Its purpurpose is to stimulate interest in the railroad industry; to foster cooperation and better understanding within the railroad industry and its affiliates; to create good public relations for the railroad industry; to further the educational, social, and professional interests of its members; to undertake charitable, benevolent, and social welfare projects; and to establish, provide, and operate a residence or residences to be used as living quarters for members of this association after their retirement. First residence for retired members was established in Boca Raton, Fla. National welfare project is providing model electric trains to schools and hospitals for handicapped children. Membership: Approximately 7,000 active in 60 chapters located in 33 States. Associate membership available.

Real Estate

Women's Council of the National Association of Real Estate Boards, 36 South Wabash Avenue, Chicago, Ill., 60603. Established 1939. Its purpose is to promote women's active participation in local Board activities and to present programs to all women Realtors within local and State groups that offer an opportunity for leadership, education, and fellowship. Membership: 4,060.

Secretarial

National Secretaries Association (International), 1103 Grand Avenue, Kansas City, Mo., 64106. Organized 1942. Its purpose is to elevate the standards of the secretarial profession by uniting, for their mutual benefit by means of educational and professional activities, women who are or have been engaged in secretarial work. It established the Institute for Certifying Secretaries, a department of NSA; and sponsors the annual certifying examination presented by this institute the first Friday and Saturday of May at universities and colleges across the country. Membership: 23,000 in 547 chapters.

Teaching

See Educational Organizations.

Writing

American Newspaper Women's Club, Inc., 1607 22d Street NW., Washington, D.C., 20008. Founded 1932. Its purpose is to maintain a meeting place for members, to promote professional pursuits and good fellowship among the members, and to encourage friendly understanding between the members and those whom they must contact in their profession. Membership: 260 professional, 105 associate members.

National League of American Pen Women, Inc., 1300 17th Street NW., Washington, D.C., 20036. Founded 1897. Its purpose is to conduct and promote among its members creative and educational activities in art, letters, and music. Membership: 5,000.

Women's National Press Club, 505 National Press Building, Washington, D.C., 20004. Founded 1919. Purposes are to encourage higher professional standards among women in journalism and other media of public information; to present outstanding leaders and foster discussion in meetings and seminars, thereby encouraging dissemination of information to the public on national and international affairs—economic, educational, scientific, and welfare developments, and any additional topics of current interest. Membership: 450.

General Service Organizations of Business and Professional Women

Altrusa International, Inc., 332 South Michigan Avenue, Chicago, Ill., 60604. Established 1917. Pioneer of women's service clubs. It channels its service work through four committees: International Relations, Public Affairs, Vocational Services, and Altrusa Information. It supports two major projects through voluntary contributions of members: Grants-in-Aid, which awards gift grants to graduate women from Asia and Latin America for higher study, and Founders Fund Vocational Aid, which makes available through local Altrusa clubs grants for women of all ages who need job training, rehabilitation,

or other help to equip themselves to find employment or start a business of their own. Membership: 16,000 in 500 clubs in 10 countries.

Pilot Club International, Persons Building, Macon, Ga., 31201. Organized 1921. A classified service club for executive business and professional women. Its objectives are to develop friendship as a means of encouraging and promoting international peace and cultural relations; to inculcate the ideal of service as the basis of all worthy enterprises; to encourage high ethical standards among business and professional women; and to promote active participation in any movement that tends to improve the civic, social, industrial, and commercial welfare of the community. Membership: More than 13,000 in 450 clubs in the United States, Canada, England, France, Bermuda, and Japan.

Quota International, Inc., 1145 19th Street NW., Washington, D.C., 20036. Established 1919. A classified civic service club of women executives. Among its objectives are service to country and community, developing good fellowship and enduring friendship, and emphasizing the worth of useful occupation. It promotes international understanding through club programs and the granting of international fellowships. Membership: 11,000 in 365 clubs in 4 countries.

Soroptimist International Association, Soroptimist Federation of the Americas, Inc., 1616 Walnut Street, Philadelphia, Pa., 19103. Founded 1921. Its purpose is to assist in developing the highest concept of patriotism and love of country; to promote the spirit of service; to foster high ethical standards in business and professions; to advance the status of women; to develop interest in community, national, and international affairs; and to recognize the worthiness and dignity of all legitimate occupations as affording to each Soroptimist an opportunity to serve society. Membership in International Association: 40,000 in 1,490 clubs in 35 countries.

Zonta International, 59 East Van Buren Street, Chicago, Ill., 60605. Established 1919. Its main objectives are the encouragement of high ethical standards in business and professions; the improvement of the legal, political, economic, and professional status of women; and the advancement of international understanding, good will, and peace through a world fellowship of executive women. Membership: 17,000 in 460 clubs in 24 countries.

Educational Organizations

Adult Education Association of the United States of America, 1225 19th Street NW., Washington, D.C., 20036. Founded May 14, 1951. Its purpose is to further the concept of education as a process continuing throughout life, by developing greater unity of purpose in the adult education movement, by helping individuals engaged in adult education increase their competence, by bringing agencies of adult education into closer relationship, by detecting needs and gaps in the field and by mobilizing resources for filling them, by making the general public more aware of the need and opportunities for adult education, by assembling and making available knowledge about adult education, and by serving as a voice for the adult education movement. Its services include the publication of Adult Leadership, Adult Education, and other leadership materials; consultation services; conferences and field services. Membership: 5,000. (Not restricted to women.)

American Association of University Women, 2401 Virginia Avenue NW., Washington, D.C., 20037. Founded 1882. Its purpose is to raise standards in education generally, to enlarge opportunities for college women, and to help members extend their education and use their abilities and training in building better communities and meeting national and international problems. Affiliated with the International Federation of University Women. Membership: Over 155,000.

American Council on Education, 1785 Massachusetts Avenue NW., Washington, D.C., 20036. Established 1918. Serves as a center of coordination and cooperation in higher education; conducts inquiries and investigations into specific educational problems and seeks to enlist appropriate agencies for their solutions. Acts as a liaison between higher education and the Federal Government. Membership: 227 educational associations, 1,072 institutions.

American Vocational Association, Inc., 1010 Vermont Avenue NW., Washington, D.C., 20005. Founded 1925 by a merger of two associations which go back to 1906. Its purpose is to promote vocational and practical arts education and to improve the quality of instruction in these phases of education, to find the aptitudes and talents of each child and prepare him for the vocation in which he is best fitted to earn his livelihood, and by so doing to contribute to the freedom and security of both the individual and the Nation. Also, the association promotes training of adult workers in vocational education to update them in their occupations and to train them for new ones. Membership: 35,000, approximately 10,000 of whom are women.

National Association of Women Deans and Counselors, a department of the National Education Association, 1201 16th Street NW., Washington, D.C., 20036. Established 1916. Its purpose is to increase the professional effectiveness of its members and to advance personnel work in schools and colleges. It is especially interested in education as it relates to women's changing roles in society and in the implications of these changes for counseling. Membership: 2,000.

National Congress of Colored Parents and Teachers, 123 South Queen Street, Dover, Del., 19901. Founded May 7, 1926. Its purpose is to promote the welfare of children and youth in home, school, church, and community; to raise the standards of homelife; to secure adequate laws for the care and protection of children and youth; to bring into closer relation the home and the school, that parents and teachers may cooperate intelligently in the training of the child; to develop between educators and the general public such united efforts as can secure for every child the highest advantages in physical, mental, social, and spiritual education. Membership: 250,000. (Not restricted to women.)

National Congress of Parents and Teachers, 700 North Rush Street, Chicago, Ill., 60611. Founded 1897. Its purpose is to promote the welfare of children and youth in home, school, church, and community; to raise the standards of homelife; to secure adequate laws for the care and protection of children and youth; to bring into closer relation the home and the school, that parents and teachers may cooperate intelligently in the training of the child; and to develop between educators and the general public such united efforts as can secure for every child the highest advantages in physical, mental, social, and spiritual education. Membership: 12,131,318. (Not restricted to women.)

National Council of Administrative Women in Education, a department of the National Education Association, 1201 16th Street NW., Washington, D.C., 20036. Founded 1915; became NEA affiliate 1932. Its purpose is to contribute to the advancement of education by encouraging women in education to prepare for and accept the challenge of administrative or executive positions; to urge school systems and educational agencies to recognize women's administrative abilities and to employ qualified women as administrators; to recognize the achievements of women in educational administration; and to work for the general recognition and utilization of women's leadership abilities as a significant national resource. Membership: 1,700.

National Education Association of the United States, 1201 16th Street NW., Washington, D.C., 20036. Established 1857 as the National Teachers Association. Its purpose is to elevate the character and advance the interests of the teaching profession and to promote the cause of education. Membership: 900,000 individual personal memberships and approximately 1,500,000 affiliated through State, territorial, and local groups. (Not restricted to women, but a majority of the members are women.)

Political and Legislative Organizations

Democratic National Committee, Office of Women's Activities, 1730 K Street NW., Washington, D.C., 20006. Established 1953, to replace the previous Women's Division and Women's Bureau, dating back to 1916. Its purpose is to encourage more women to participate in Democratic political organizations and provide them with information and techniques to make it possible for them to work as equals with men at all political levels. Functions include preparing and distributing political techniques materials, assisting in building political organizations, aiding and encouraging women to seek both public and party office.

National Federation of Republican Women, 1625 I Street NW., Washington, D.C., 20006. Founded 1938. The objectives are to promote an informed electorate through political education, to increase the effectiveness of women in the cause of good government through active political participation, to facilitate cooperation among women's Republican clubs, to foster loyalty to the Republican Party and to promote its ideals, to support objectives and policies of the Republican National Committee, and to work for the election of the Republican Party's nominees. Membership: 500,000 women in 50 States, the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico, and the District of Columbia.

National Woman's Party, 144 Constitution Avenue NE., Washington, D.C., 20002. Established 1913 for suffrage for women through the adoption of the Federal Suffrage Amendment; reorganized in 1921 for equal rights for women in all fields. Its immediate purpose is to secure the adoption of the Equal Rights for Women Amendment to the National Constitution and equal rights for women in the international field. It is affiliated with the World Woman's Party and with the International Council of Women.

Republican National Committee, Women's Division, 1625 I Street NW., Washington, D.C., 20006. Founded 1918 to give women a voice in the councils of the

Republican National Committee. Its basic objectives are to coordinate the activities of women in the Republican Party to achieve a maximum effectiveness from their efforts; to encourage their participation in party work and in seeking public office as candidates; and to promote equal recognition of women with men at all levels of party organization, to develop leadership among Republican women, and to keep women informed of party activities and current issues.

Woman's National Democratic Club, 1526 New Hampshire Avenue NW., Washington, D.C., 20036. Founded 1922. Its purpose is to afford Democratic women an opportunity to obtain information about problems and issues confronting the country and to discuss Democratic ideals and programs, to do educational and community service work, and to hear and meet the Nation's lawmakers and other leaders in domestic and international fields. Membership: 1,350.

Patriotic Organizations

American Legion Auxiliary, 777 North Meridian Street, Indianapolis, Ind., 46204. Established 1921. Its purpose is to assist The American Legion in the promotion of Americanism, patriotism, and world peace, and in its program for the benefit of veterans and their families. Membership is composed of wives, widows, mothers, daughters, and sisters of veterans of World Wars I and II and the Korean conflict, and women veterans of those hostilities. The veteran, if living, must be a member of The American Legion. Membership: Approximately 1 million.

Daughters of the American Revolution, National Society, 1776 D Street NW., Washington, D.C., 20006. Established 1890. Objectives are historic preservation, promotion of education, and patriotic endeavor. National Headquarters, Washington, D.C., Americana Museum with 28 period rooms and genealogical library open to the public 9 a.m. to 4 p.m. daily. Membership: Approximately 185,000 in nearly 3,000 local chapters throughout the United States.

Daughters of Union Veterans of the Civil War, 1861–65, 534 South Second Street, Springfield, Ill., 62704. Organized 1885. Its purpose is patriotic, historical, and educational. Membership: 15,000. (Membership restricted to women whose ancestors sided with the North during the Civil War.)

Disabled American Veterans Auxiliary, 220 East Washington Street, Colorado Springs, Colo., 80907. Established 1922. Its purpose is to uphold and maintain the Constitution and laws of the United States, to advance the interests and work for the betterment of all wounded, injured, and disabled veterans and their families. Membership is composed of wives, widows, mothers, daughters, sisters, granddaughters, and grandmothers of disabled veterans of World Wars I and II and the Korean conflict, and disabled women veterans. Membership: Approximately 50,000.

Ladies Auxiliary to the Veterans of Foreign Wars of the United States, 406 West 34th Street, Kansas City, Mo., 64111. Founded 1914. Its objectives are fraternal, patriotic, and educational. Major programs include volunteer work

in the Veterans' Administration and other hospitals, and welfare activities for veterans and their dependents. Membership: 355,000.

United Daughters of the Confederacy, U.D.C. Memorial Building, 328 North Boulevard, Richmond, Va., 23220. Established 1894. Its purpose is historical, benevolent, educational, and social. Membership: Approximately 36,000. (Membership restricted to women who are descendants of Confederate veterans of the War Between the States.)

Farm and Rural Organizations

American Farm Bureau Federation, Women's Commitee, Room 1000, Merchandise Mart, Chicago, Ill., 60654. Its objective is to assist in an active, organized way in carrying forward the program of the American Farm Bureau Federation; to promote, strengthen, and assist the development of the business, economic, social, educational, and spiritual interests of the farm families of the Nation; and to develop agriculture. Membership: 1,628,295.

Country Women's Council, U.S.A., c/o Mrs. Everett Spangler, Chairman, 444 South 88th Street, Omaha, Nebr., 68114. Founded 1939. This Council is a coordinating group made up of representatives of 4 national and some 60 regional and State societies in the United States which are constituent members of the Associated Country Women of the World. Its purpose is to effect a closer association among these United States groups in carrying out the aims and programs of the Associated Country Women of the World in furthering friendship and understanding among the country women of the world, in improving their standard of living, and in representing them in international councils. Membership: 2 million.

National Home Demonstration Council, c/o Mrs. Homer A. Greene, President, Tutwiler, Miss., 38963. Founded 1936. Its purpose is to strengthen and develop adult education in home economics through the cooperative Extension Service of the U.S. Department of Agriculture and the land-grant colleges; to provide opportunity for homemakers to pool their judgment for the improvement of home and community life; and to offer a means by which homemakers may promote extension projects important in the protection and development of the American home. Membership: Approximately 1 million.

Woman's National Farm and Garden Association, Inc., c/o Miss Elizabeth Miller, President, 201 Iola Street, Glenshaw, Pa., 15116. Founded 1914. Its purpose is to stimulate interest in the conservation of natural resources and an appreciation of country life; to work for improvement of rural conditions; to promote good relationships between farm and city women; to help women and girls through scholarships and expert advice to obtain the best available training in agriculture, horticulture, and related professions, and to develop opportunities for women so trained; to stimulate and make available to members opportunities for the marketing of farm and garden products; and to cooperate with national and international groups of women with similar interests. Membership: 8,000.

Labor Organizations

The Bureau of Labor Statistics of the U.S. Department of Labor, in its "Directory of National and International Labor Unions in the United States, 1965," includes a table listing of the unions that report membership by sex. (See table 39, page 82 of this handbook, for list of unions reporting 25,000 or more women members.)

American Federation of Labor—Congress of Industrial Organizations (AFL–CIO) Auxiliaries, **815 16th Street NW., Washington, D.C., 20006. Established December 1957 by merger of the former American Federation of Women's Auxiliaries of Labor and National C.I.O. Auxiliaries. Composed of women from families of men in a trade union affiliated with the AFL–CIO. Its purpose is to further the program of the AFL–CIO; to foster organizing of the unorganized members of union families and to educate them in the benefits of trade unionism; to aid in securing better schools and instructors; to abolish child labor; to promote legislation which benefits workers and their families; and to promote social and cultural activities. Membership: 50,000.**

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Part V

Bibliography on American Women Workers

BIBLIOGRAPHY ON AMERICAN WOMEN WORKERS

This bibliography covers principally publications of current interest concerning women as workers and citizens. It was prepared in response to numerous requests for reference materials pertaining to women's participation in employment and other activities outside the home. Since it is based primarily on materials utilized in the course of research work and is not the result of a complete review of the literature in the field, the bibliography is of necessity limited. It includes references with varying conclusions and opinions, and does not constitute endorsement of any single point of view.

Wherever possible, the references have been classified according to their primary subject matter. Those which are not specialized are shown under "General."

The topical sections of the bibliography are:

General
Commissions on the Status of Women
Counseling and Guidance
Education and Training
Family Status and Responsibilities of Women Workers
Health and Conditions of Work
International
Special Groups of Women
Standards and Legislation Affecting Women
Union Organization
Women as Workers
Conferences, Seminars, and Meetings
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